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HUNT'S

TS' LINE.

MAY, 1845.

ART. I.—COMMERCIAL ASSOCIATIONS OF FRANCE AND ENGLAND.

THERE are few subjects that at this time occupy more of the attention of legislative bodies, than that of the terms upon which individuals are to be permitted to associate together for the purpose of trading with the public. The ingenuity of legislators is exercised in devising restrictions and regulations for the purpose of securing the rights of third parties trading with associations, and few or none of them appear to suppose that those third parties are more capable of judging what is for their own interest than any legislator can possibly be. Our whole system is based upon a recognition of the right of self-government, which includes a right, on the part of individuals, freely to contract with each other as to the terms upon which they will trade; and to determine for themselves whether they will trade with individuals or associations; and, if they prefer the latter, whether with those which offer, as a guarantee for the faithful performance of their agreement, the whole of their property, or that of a certain fixed capital. As no one is bound to trade with a company unless he deem it to his advantage so to do; if he does so, it should rest with him, as it seems to us, to satisfy himself of the security. Such being the case, we are unable to see the propriety of requiring legislative sanction for the adoption of any particular form of association, or any particular form of contract, and we have little doubt that it will soon become obvious that the present system of granting charters, as privileges and monopolies in favor of certain individuals, will give way to a recognition of the perfect right of all to contract with each other on such terms as they may deem most for their own advantage. The whole subject has been carefully examined in the following paper by M. Coquelin, originally published in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for July, 1843, and we think we cannot better occupy a part of our space, than in offering our readers a translation of it.

There have been singular misconceptions in regard to the great word "Association." It has been made to serve, at one time, as the text for

Man has been the subject of the experiments of a few schools, and to be attended to. But recently we have seen a new school, whose professors professing to be the most advanced and kind forward to the study of man, and the last schools of their kind, and those of our readers, this school should designate them were particularly to illustrate the existing order of things by giving a new organization of society which are the remains of past centuries, and thus continuing the work of previous generations, with a steady improvement in the mode of action, these schools are required to satisfy their ambition. The existing society wanted regularity: it was not sufficiently defined: it left too much to the human will—too much to the voluntary action of the individual. They desired one with a single centre or head—universal in its nature and object—in which individuality should cease to exist—to be possessed of a single soul, and moved by a single will; and to which man should feel himself attached by a single tie, but that to be sufficiently strong to control him in all his actions. Such was the end proposed for accomplishment by those pretended apostles of human association! Is it such as we should desire to arise? Or can we believe that it is by such means that the progress of mankind in civilization is to be promoted? In opposition thereto, the study of man, and of his history, proves to us that the social ties are daily increasing in number; that, in the progress of man toward civilization, there is a constant increase in the forms and objects of association; and that, in the natural course of things, there is a universal tendency that is directly opposed to the narrow and contemptible unity advocated in these schools.

Man, they say, is fond of society ; and, therefore, they would desire to absorb him in a single society, as if the desire of association which they attribute to him could find but that single field for its exercise. Man is a social being : all his desires and faculties tend to render him such ; but with the desire of association there is found combined a still stronger desire for freedom of action. Various in character, and changeable in feeling, man is instinctively induced to desire a state of society various and changeable as his own nature ; and, instead of uniting himself indissolubly with any single portion of his fellow-men, attaching himself thereto by a chain, the weight of which is almost beyond his power to bear, while its strength is such as to forbid the idea that it should be broken, he would surround himself by thousands of the finest filaments, which, while connecting him in every direction with beings resembling himself, would still give play to the feelings of his individual nature. Such is the course that reason would dictate, and such is the tendency of civilization. History affords abundant evidence that it has so manifested itself in past times, and we have the strongest reasons for believing that such will be the case in future.

When we compare, in this respect, modern times with those of antiquity, how great is the difference! Who can have failed to remark in how



The political ties are less strict in the modern world than in the ancient. In Rome, the city did not limit itself to the protection of its own territory, but it found and enslaved them, and it was upon them that it relied. The controlled their movements, occupied their time, and demanded of them every service. Their goods, and even their lives, were held at the disposal of the state. The man, however, was not a living fraction of the city. Of individual rights, there was few or none. The modern man, in our days, so solemnly proclaims the rights of man, and the legislation of all free nations, which has been the result, has extinguished in the common feeling the idea of the state, and its existence. That which was so dear to the ancients, the participation in the exercise of the sovereign power, or power over others; but not, as it is now understood, a right to the free application of our own labor and our own talents, and to the peaceful enjoyment of our own property. The state was everything, and the individual was nothing; whereas, the distinguishing characteristic of modern civilization is a diminution of the power of the state, and an increase of that of the man: it is the constantly increasing regard for individual rights. The security of person, of property, and of opinion, now so extensively enjoyed, is held inviolate. Reasons of state are no longer permitted to prompt to any interference with them. These differences are not to be ascribed to any want of strength in the modern constitutions of government; for those nations whose organization is most perfect, those whose government is most steady, and those whose advance in the course of civilization is the most rapid, are precisely those which are remarkable for the greatest diminution of the rights of the state, and the most religious regard for those of individuals.

Should we thence infer that the moderns are less advanced in social life than were the people of Greece and Rome? Certainly not. To admit that such was the case, would be to deny the existence of that desire of association which is invoked. If, in our times, the political association has lost some of its exclusive privileges, it has done so to the advantage of one of a higher species. Man has not availed himself of the freedom which he has recovered, to return to the primitive independence of savage life; but, on the contrary, has established for himself, and to his great advantage, an infinite number of relations, of the most various character, with his fellow-men. Commerce and manufactures, arts and sciences, and even our very pleasures, have afforded to the moderns opportunities for the formation of social relations; so that there is now scarcely a single act in the life of man that does not bring him into contact with his fellow-men. The increase in the number of these relations is not more remarkable than is their extent. It is scarcely, indeed, possible to compare, in this respect, those of the ancients, limited by the walls of their city, with those of our time, when the intercourse between nations the most distant has become so easy and so rapid. Thus, precisely as one of the ties by which man is connected with his fellow-men becomes weakened, we find him amidst thousands of others, formed of his own free will, liable to be changed at his convenience, and consistent, therefore, with the enjoyment of liberty; but which, from their character and their number, produce connections of the most indestructible kind.

It is necessary to analyze carefully the progress of civilization, to trace, in the various countries, the changes in the social order which are observed in the different branches of human life. In their infancy, the different productions are made at one place, and by the same hands. Thus, in the labor in the field we see the raw material, the farmer wants of those for whom it is intended, and delivers it to the consumer. The wool is sheared, and spun, and woven, and worn, all executed from the same hands. At a later period, labor becomes divided, and the different operations are separated from each other, executed by different hands, in different places. The more rapid the advancement of civilization, the greater is the division of labor; and the greatest perfection of the latter marks the most rapid progress of the former. So is it with association. In uncivilized times it is most simple. The whole social aptitude is then exercised in a single circle of very limited extent—first, that of the family, and soon after, that of the state. At a later period, we find many circles among which the life of man is divided; and the more perfect the civilization, the more numerous become these circles, and the more specific their objects; and thus, as in manufactures, the constantly increasing division of labor tends to the daily increase of the productive power; so with this enlarged application of the principle of association, the social life gains in extent, in depth, and in intensity.

Properly applied, and for the purposes to which it is adapted, the desire of association is a lever of wonderful power; one that is capable of producing great results; and one which man desires at every step to call to his aid. By the union of individual forces, of which it is the cause, there is obtained an increase of power so great that we find it difficult to conceive of an enterprise so extensive as not to be practicable. Of how many applications is it not susceptible in trade and manufactures! The most gigantic labors become simple and easy when aided by it; and works, that could not ever be dreamed of by individuals, become easy of execution when numbers are associated for their performance.

We must not, however, believe that it may be applied on all occasions, even within the limits we have above indicated—those of trade and manufactures. The increase of power is relative, not absolute; and it is obtained only when the union of which it should be the result is directed to the attainment of an object, the importance of which is proportioned to the extent of the association. When such is not the case, there is a diminution, instead of an increase, of power, each of the individuals losing a part of that which he before possessed. However advantageous may be trading and manufacturing associations, individual enterprise will, at all times, be found maintaining its rights. If the former have advantages resulting from an union of forces, individual energy, prompted by self-interest, affords others by which competition is maintained: to wit, promptitude, economy, and careful management of detail. According to La Fontaine, "we must see the master's eye." It is seen in the operations of individuals, while it is wanting in those of associations, or at least those which are on a great scale, and it is difficult to estimate the full extent of the injury that results therefrom. There are limits to the powers of man, and the manager of a great undertaking, even although devoted to it as fully as if it were his own individual enterprise, can never give to all the

details require more and attention that could be given to one on a more limited scale. Association should not, therefore, be resorted to for either trading or manufacturing purposes, except when there are serious grounds of preference. In these cases, it would be difficult to state, but we may furnish some general indications of them.

In the first place, it is necessary, in all cases, when the magnitude of the operation is such as to exceed the power of individual exertion. Here, there is no choice. Again—although even not beyond the limits of individual ability, it might be that advantage would result from executing it on a large scale; as, by so doing, recourse might be had to machinery that would be too costly for an operation of on a small one—or because, in a large establishment the arrangements may be made more complete, involving a more perfect division of labor, and causing greater economy of expenditure.

In matters of this kind there is required, however, a good deal of caution in regard to paper calculations as even when apparently most accurate, there is found very often good reason to doubt the correctness of figures. It happens not unfrequently that it is desired to bring within the sphere of association certain operations that have been thus far successfully carried on by individuals, and an estimate is furnished with a view to prove the advantage to be derived from it. The expenses of the private establishment are first given, to show how much of them is unnecessary; the waste is then shown, and the absence of division of labor, with the loss of which it is the cause, attributable to the limited extent of the concern; and then an account of the expenditure and product of a great company is furnished, with results contrasting most favorably with those of the individual operator, because of the great apparent economy of labor. The calculation is most precise, the deductions are most logical, and the results are undeniable. Nevertheless, when it is attempted to carry the proposed operation into effect, it is found that the individual trader, or manufacturer, notwithstanding the competition which it was threatened would destroy him, is enabled to continue his business, bearing, without effort, the weight of his expenses, and of his losses, whilst, with all their great savings, the company is ruined; and it is so because in their estimates they had omitted certain moral influences, by which all their calculations are overthrown. Individual establishments are indebted for their success to the activity and care of the owners, who require promptitude and exactness from those in their employ, while maintaining harmony among themselves, and thus are enabled to establish economy in the details of their business; while companies too often owe their ruin to the want of all these qualities. A short career of activity is not unfrequently succeeded by a want of both care and industry on the part of the managers. Personal attention to the performance of operations so extended is deemed an exertion too severe for their limited powers, and it ceases to be given; the example, thus set, is followed by those in their employ; and, in a short time, the want of union, and of concert of action, becomes manifest; want of order gains ground, while the appearance of it is maintained; and, at length, waste and robbery accomplish what negligence commenced. Here we have the history of numerous companies, past and present. It is that of most public establishments, which are to be regarded as great associations; it will be that of more of those institutions now dreamed of by our different social schools, if, perchance, they

should ever be so matured as to test the correctness of our views regarding them. Without doubting in the least the advantages of associations, even when in certain cases, they are found connected with the exertions of individuals, we may be permitted to express the opinion that those advantages are neither so general nor so great as are sometimes supposed, and that we must not to overlook the disadvantages by which they are sometimes overbalanced.

Those disadvantages are, however, greatly diminished when the operation is of such a character as to admit of a regular and steady course of action, where the labor is uniform, where each day sees repeated the movement of that which preceded it, and where each person has marked out for him beforehand the duty that he is expected to perform. Such is the case, more especially, in establishments in which the duty, is in a great measure, reduced to one of mere responsibility, as, for example, in banking and insurance companies.

This habit of association is also applicable to establishments which, like banks, require a large amount of confidence, because a large and powerful company will always command it to a greater extent than an individual, be he whom he may. It is so, likewise, in those operations in which guarantee against risk is required—first, because in general those risks may, when taken on a large scale, be measured by aid of the doctrine of probabilities, and thus cease to present any real danger; and, secondly, because, in case of loss, it is divided among a large number of persons, and is little felt; whereas it would be utterly destructive to an individual. Associations may also properly engage in operations which, although offering the prospect of a large return, are attended with too much risk to warrant individuals in undertaking them. Were it, for example, proposed to fit out an expedition for a new and comparatively unknown country, a company, towards the formation of which no one of the members had contributed more than a very small portion of his means, might be in a situation to undertake it, perhaps with advantage to the proprietors, and to the nation at large.

Associations are formed, in the United States, as well as in England, for undertakings the most gigantic in extent, and the most hazardous in character. In addition to the vast extent of the works they have constructed for purposes of internal communication, they have undertaken the foundation of distant colonies, the creation of cities in the woods, and the exploration of unknown regions of country. There is no idea so bold, provided it offer the prospect, remote or proximate, of a sufficient return, that they are not tempted to carry it into execution. We observe, as a consequence of this adventurous spirit, occasional failures, partial disasters, and sometimes even great disturbances in the commercial world, although these latter are much more frequently to be attributed to political events than to mercantile miscalculation. This disposition to adventure is not unattended by risk; but then, on the other hand, how great is the spring that it gives to trade, and how numerous are the outlets for which both trade and manufactures are indebted to it! How widely, in the case of those two nations, is the sphere of commercial activity extended, and how rapid is the increase of their wealth! If some of their trading associations have met with disasters, under which they have fallen, hundreds of others have survived, the pride and strength of their respective countries; and



even over the ruins of some of those which have given way, have been opened new roads to wealth, of which individuals have largely availed themselves.

## II.

At no time has the principle of association been extensively applied in France. Whether before or since the revolution, we find but a small number of petty companies, and few or none of those powerful combinations of capital and men that are required for the formation of a system of extensive commercial operations. Most persons are thence induced to suppose that the genius of the French nation is not in accordance with this principle—an idea which we believe to be very erroneous, although we shall not now stop to examine it, but will proceed to show what we deem to be the true cause of the evil: to wit, the state of the law regulating the formation and management of associations.

There is reason to believe that companies for trading purposes were left to manage themselves until 1673, at which time it was deemed expedient to subject them all to one general law. The ordinance then published recognized the existence of two kinds: viz., the *societe en nom collectif*, and the *societe en commandite*, which were regulated by it nearly as they are at the present day. In addition to those which ranged themselves under these two heads, there were others, free and irregular, but temporary in their nature, generally formed for the performance of some single and specific operation, and with which the law did not, therefore, interfere. At that time they were known as *societies anonymes*, but they are now styled *societes en participation*.

This system, as we see, provided no place for the larger species of association; for neither of the two forms recognized by the law was susceptible of application on a great scale; the *societe en commandite* not then being permitted the division of the capital into shares, which has since been authorised. Those then termed *anonymes* were destined to but a very brief period of existence, having in them no cohesive principle. The larger species of association—that founded on transferable stock, and the only one fitted for extensive operations—was then scarcely at all known. The only examples were some few that were authorised by the government, as the India Company, the Bank of Law, and others of a similar kind—companies organized under the grant of special privileges, and less to be regarded as commercial establishments than state institutions.

At the close of the revolution, in consequence of the disordered state of the government, commercial associations were enabled, in some degree, to free themselves from restrictions. It was then that the practice arose, among the *societes en commandite*, of dividing the capital into transferable shares, the effect of which was greatly to enlarge their sphere of action. At the same time was seen to arise a new species of association, to which the old *societe anonyme*, thanks to the license she enjoyed, served, as it seemed, for a pretext, although the difference between them was very essential. This new species of association, greater in its capital, more numerous as regards its members, and more extensive in its operations, thus made its way into the world under a borrowed name, and without legal recognition; and yet, notwithstanding its precarious position, it has filled, with advantage, the situation to which it was entitled by reason of its admirable constitution. It is the same which is now known as the *societe anonyme*.



At the formation of the code, in 1807, the system adopted in regard to associations was essentially that of the ancient legislation, but there were engrafted thereon some of those innovations which custom had sanctioned. The *societe en commandite* retained the privilege of dividing its capital into transferable shares, and the new *societe anonyme* received a legal sanction, with, however, the reservation to the government of the right of determining the expediency of the formation of any company of this latter description. As to the old *societe anonyme*, that ephemeral association which the law had never undertaken to regulate, it retained its old privileges, changing only its name. That now given to it was *societe en participation*, being the same that had before been held by one of its branches.

This law of 1807 has existed to the present time, and it is in its provisions that we must seek the cause of the torpor of the spirit of association among us, as well as of the abuses that have so frequently attended the cases in which it has been applied. By it, three species of commercial associations are recognised.

In the first, *la societe en nom collectif*, all the parties are required to be specified by name in a public declaration, and their names alone serve as the groundwork of the association. Their union involves the most entire responsibility, in their persons, and to the full extent of their fortunes, for all the engagements of the company, and those engagements may be formed by any one of the persons signing the contract of partnership.

The second, *la societe commanditaire*, is formed between one or more acting partners, responsible for all engagements, in person and in property, and one or more special partners, who supply the capital, and are named *commanditaires*, or *partners en commandite*. The names of the first class—those of the acting partners—alone appear in any contracts of the association, and to them exclusively is reserved the control of the action of the company. So far as regards them, everything is precisely as it would be in any ordinary partnership, but the special partners are liable for losses only to the extent of the capital they have subscribed to the company.

The third, *la societe anonyme*, has no connection with the names of the associators. That which is given to it, is usually one calculated to designate the object of the enterprise. None of the partners are liable beyond the amount of their subscribed capital. It is managed by persons employed for that purpose, whether partners or not, who are either salaried or otherwise, as the case may be. Their management carries with it no responsibility on their part for the debts of the company, nor any other, except for the due execution of the duties entrusted to them.\*

It is thus, and nearly in these words, that associations are regulated by the code. We have, however, omitted various provisions for carrying out the system, because not of a fundamental character.

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\* It will readily be seen that these three forms of association correspond precisely with those known among us as the common partnership, the limited partnership, and the chartered company, or corporation. The two former will hereafter be referred to by those names; but, in speaking of the latter, we shall use the French one, as in noticing English associations of that description, the author uses the term corporation, with reference to some differences that he thinks exists between those and the *société anonyme*. We are not, however, aware of any such difference. [Translator.]

In examining these general arrangements, and comparing them with the practice under them, we find that the first is a combination of capital and of persons, and constitutes the most absolute form of commercial association. That which renders it such is not less the extent of the responsibility which is assumed, than the obligation imposed by the publicity given to their names. The last, placed at the opposite extremity of the scale, gives us, on the contrary, a simple association of capital. Everything that could tend to remind us of the individual is dropped, the associates taking no part in the management, except so far as to designate the persons to whom it is to be confided, and to require from them reports of the disposition of the capital confided to their care. The second occupies a sort of middle position between the two, being a sort of mixed association; but it is to be remarked that the position of the special partners differs materially from that of members of a *societe anonyme*, or chartered company, because the latter, reserving to themselves, as they do, the right of changing the direction, are at all times the fountain of power: whereas the former, having once paid up their capital, abdicate all authority, and relinquish all right of interference, leaving the management exclusively to the acting partners.

We cannot fail to be struck with the restrictive spirit which predominates throughout the system, and which is fully shown in the single sentence, "The law recognizes three kinds of commercial association." The act of association being a most natural one, it would appear that the terms of it might advantageously be left to the parties themselves, to be modified as they might respectively judge best for the promotion of their several interests; but we see, on the contrary, that the law takes their place, proposing three different modes of accomplishing their object, and leaving them only the choice as to which they would prefer. Let them select which they may, they find their proceedings trammelled by regulations of the strictest kind, rigorously enforced, and incapable of modification with a view to the necessities of the various cases that may and do arise.

Is this right? Is it to be regarded as an indication of wisdom and foresight on the part of the legislator, or simply as an abuse of the power of regulation, a restraint upon the freedom of trade, and an useless and injurious interference with the right of men freely to contract one with another? We shall see in the sequel; but it is proposed first to inquire whether or not the various combinations thus indicated by the law are the only possible ones, whether they are sufficient for the purposes of trade, and whether the limitation to a mere choice among them does not interfere injuriously with the development of the habit of association. We shall preface this inquiry by an examination of the advantages to be derived from the several authorised forms themselves.

The first, or common partnership, would appear, at first sight, to be the most perfect, as it is the most rigorous in its requirements. It is the absolute type of commercial association; but, for the reason that it is so rigorous, and so absolute, it is not susceptible of application on an extensive scale. Too many conditions are required in an alliance so close, to admit that many persons should associate themselves together under it. Where men contribute their time and attention to a common stock, it is necessary that there should be some similarity of habit and of capacity, or that they should endeavor to adapt themselves to each other; and, if it be not absolutely necessary that they should be equal in their contributions

of credit and capital, there must be established among them, in this regard, such regulations as will tend to prevent dispute, and this is not always readily or completely accomplished. Again—where men are thus responsible, and where each exercises the right of binding his partners to an unlimited extent, there must be an equally unlimited confidence in each other. Such a connection involves a necessity for daily, if not for hourly intercourse, which, in its turn, requires that there should be a conformity of disposition, and of temperament, or, at least, a habit of mutual tolerance. These things could never be found in an extensive association. The most we have a right to hope for, is to find them occasionally in a small group of relations or friends. Being indispensable to common partnerships, it is obvious that, although applicable to a vast variety of operations, the number of persons composing them must always be very limited.

The *societe en commandite*, or limited partnership, although subjected to regulations that are abundantly rigorous, allows much more freedom than the ordinary partnership. As the mass of the partners take no part in the management, there is far less tendency to discord, the probability of a prolonged and peaceful existence, is greatly increased, and less difficulty consequently attends its application on a large scale. Those difficulties which attend the forced co-operation in ordinary partnership have here no existence. It is not required that there should be harmony of opinion, or similarity of capacity, or of character, that they should at all times think and act alike; it is, on the contrary, sufficient that they have adopted, once for all, the views of the acting partner, and that they deem his character to afford them a warrant for expecting faithful management of the interests confided to his care.

Would the reader see the action of a limited partnership in its most rigorous form, let him suppose an inventor seeking for a capital to enable him to carry his invention into practice. To obtain the aid of capitalists, he must offer them a share of the anticipated benefit—they must associate themselves with him in the chances of its success. In such a case, which of the forms would he select? Not a common partnership, certainly! for who would call in a third person to take part in the management of a business, the secret of which belonged exclusively to himself? What advantage, indeed, would result from the unlimited liability of the partners, where there was no reciprocity? Neither would he select the *societe anonyme*, or chartered company, in which he might be superseded as manager. He would stand, in such an association, on no better footing than any other share holder, and he might be lost in the crowd; whereas, the association existing, as it were, by and for him, the management would appear to belong to him as a matter of right.

Cases occur, in which a merchant, or a manufacturer, without being precisely an inventor, has undeniable claims to the management of an undertaking, from the possession of qualities peculiarly calculated to promote its success. So great, indeed, is the necessity, in many cases, for the limited partnership, that it is difficult to conceive how we could dispense with, or replace it. Suppress it, and there will be seen, on all sides, inventions abandoned, talents unproductive, and the most promising establishments struck with paralysis, or perhaps even death.

Such as it is, nevertheless, the limited partnership, although well adapted for certain cases, is not fitted for the general business of life. Vesting, as it does, all power in the hands of the acting partners, in

whom the association is personified, it is obvious that there should be reason for so doing found in the fact of his possessing peculiar qualifications, as, otherwise, the company would appear to be created chiefly for his individual advantage. In cases where the associates are equal, or nearly so, in their rights and claims, and where no one is seen to possess any particular recommendation for the post of manager, where the management might be performed indifferently, by various members of the association; or even, where the company having been formed without the special intervention of any single individual, belongs, as we may say, to itself; the grant of such absolute power would be a monstrous absurdity. What then would be the proper form in such a case? The reader must already have seen that it would be that of the *societe anonyme*, or chartered company.

That is the form of association which especially belongs to our time, and which is suited to our wants. It is the one which may look upon the future as its property. Everything tends to prove that such is the case: its recent origin; its rapid success in the short period during which it has been permitted to exert its energies, notwithstanding the efforts that have been made, both in France and in England, to supply its place; and its immense extension in the United States, where it has had to encounter less interference on the part of legislators. It is necessary only to examine it, to be fully satisfied how admirably it enters into the spirit, and how perfectly it adapts itself to the wants of trade.

Capitalists coming together from various quarters, agree with each other to enter into any given operation. Each takes such share as suits his inclination and his means. With the amount subscribed, they form a joint capital suited to the object they have in view. They then designate the persons who shall have charge of the management, for their common benefit, and their duties are performed. They meet and they separate without knowing each other; they are held together by a single tie, but otherwise are entirely free as regards their persons and their acts. If any further duty rest upon them, it is only that of *surveillance*, always easy, and one that may be performed from a distance, or dispensed with, as occasion may require. There are none of the annoyances that attend an ordinary partnership. The capital being once paid up, every member is free, and there is no responsibility to disquiet him, as his losses are limited by the extent of his interest. If so disposed, and it meets the approbation of the other share holders, he takes a part in the direction, but otherwise leaves it in the hands of others.

As the capital of the company may be divided at will, and as the associates are such with reference only to that capital, and no demand is made upon their time or attention, it follows that the stock by which the capital is represented may be diffused throughout the nation, or even held in foreign countries; and, in this manner, a whole nation may unite itself in a national enterprise, or the nations of the world combine for the execution of a work intended for the general good of mankind. There is nothing which accords so fully with the cosmopolitan spirit of trade as this species of association—nothing which favors so directly that commercial union of the various nations, which it is so obviously the tendency of the inventions of our time to produce.

How perfect, too, is the facility of proportioning the amount of capital to the extent of the undertaking! The fortune and credit of the single



capitalist, however great, have their limits, and may exceed, or fall short of the desired amount. In the first case, he is unwilling to devote himself to any enterprise that is not in some measure commensurate with his means; while in the latter, and more common case, he finds only embarrassment and failure. In an association like that of which we speak, the capital is elastic, and may be increased or diminished at discretion.

It is more particularly in extensive undertakings that the *societe anonyme*, or chartered company, possesses advantages, not only over individuals, such as may readily be understood, but over all other forms of association. The common partnership cannot extend itself, as we have seen, because of its numerous requirements. The limited partnership is very limited in its powers. In the *societe anonyme*, on the contrary, the base of the association may be extended at will, as there is no necessary limit to the amount of the capital. It is for this reason that this form is so peculiarly fitted to the enlarged ideas of our times.

There are other reasons which give it a decided advantage over all the other forms. In the common partnership, the equality of power possessed by the partners, and the necessity for its daily exercise, tend to produce daily discussions, and ultimately a want of harmony among them. The limited partnership is not liable to this exception, but it is because the persons who furnish the capital are compelled to forego all control over its management. The *societe anonyme* restores everything to its right place, establishing order without interfering with right. It leaves to the mass of the share holders sufficient power—all, in fact, that they could advantageously exercise—that of appointing, directing, and removing the managers. Appointed themselves by the shareholders, these managers exercise, in their turn, an absolute control over the persons whose services are required to carry out their views, engaging or discharging them at their pleasure. Thus, while among the members there is that perfect equality required for permanent association, there is among the employees that subordination which is indispensable to the attainment of unity, steadiness, and energy of action; and withal, the rights of the various parties are fully maintained. The union of these advantages in the *societe anonyme* would appear to render it the most perfect form of association.

### III.

Unless we greatly deceive ourselves, the views we have thus submitted to our readers must tend to induce them to agree with us in the doubts we have expressed as to the sufficiency of the system established among us. It is obvious that these three forms, with their numerous formalities, and their limited power of application, are far from filling the vast circle of association. It is impossible not to see that they are widely separated from each other, and that there are vast spaces unoccupied. Between the common partners, who identify themselves with each other, body and goods, and the holders of shares, in a *compagnie anonyme*, who have put into the common stock but a portion of their capitals, and are free from all further responsibility, there is room for very many possible, and, perhaps, excellent combinations to exist; and it can scarcely be doubted that, if man had, in this respect, been left perfectly free, his ingenuity, constantly at work to increase his means, and to enable him to avail himself of his own resources, would have discovered new modes by which the principle of association would have been rendered vastly more pro-



ductive than it has yet been made among us. Suppose, for example, that in the first, or common partnership, that of unlimited liability, the partners were released from the obligation of publishing their names to the world, and that the association were known by the name of only one of the partners, or by that of the object for the promotion of which the company had been formed; there would be an immediate change of character, and the ties by which the partners were held together would be rendered less stringent; and, consequently, the power of extension would be proportionably increased. If, in addition, it were permitted to such an association to divide its capital into shares, (a thing too natural and too simple ever to be prohibited,) there would be nothing to prevent its application to extensive operations, without in any way confounding it with the *societe anonyme*, or chartered company, from which it would still be distinguished by the unlimited responsibility of its members. In this manner, from each one of the recognised forms of association might be produced a variety of new ones.\*

It cannot but be regretted that it should have been deemed necessary to define so carefully the various forms of association, to limit their number, and to determine so rigorously the conditions of their existence. It would seem desirable to allow more latitude to trade, and to permit greater freedom in the formation of contracts. If the legislator has regarded this limitation as an act of foresight, or of wisdom, he has certainly deceived himself; as, instead of producing regularity of association, he has done nothing but prevent the development of the great principle. Instead of introducing order into this species of transactions, he has produced, under a deceitful appearance of regularity, the highest degree of disorder; and he might have foreseen that it was inevitable that the interests of individuals would induce an attempt to break the chains by which they were bound, and to escape by secret outlets, when the great gates should be closed against them.

Nevertheless, such as it was, with all its deficiencies, the system, thus prescribed, was capable of being advantageously applied, had the subsequent arrangements been of a more liberal character. Freed from further restrictions, those three species of association, although insufficient, would have answered for a vast variety of situations, and for the satisfaction of a host of wants; but the legislator has surrounded them with express restrictions, or with formalities indirectly restrictive, which greatly retard their development. The abuse of the power of regulation so obvious in the general outline of the system, is not less manifest in the details. We shall now proceed to show what, with the aid of these restrictions, the associations become in practice.

\* In 1838, in a memoir on commercial association, M. Wolowski proposed, with a view to remedy some of the abuses of the limited partnership, to grant certain authority to the special partners, or to a council of inspection to be instituted by them. M. Wolowski did not remark that what he proposed was not merely a modification of the limited partnership, but a new species of company—one far more convenient than that whose constitution he proposed to improve, being better suited to purposes to which it would then be applied; but not at all fitted to those for which it has thus far been used. About the same time, M. Vincens, Counsellor of State, showed that the constitutions granted to the different *sociétés anonymes*, were not always alike in their provisions. There are, in fact, important differences among them—differences not authorised by the general law under which they are granted, which is too absolute and rigorous in its requirements to accommodate itself to the wants of trade. The forms of association are susceptible of an almost incalculable number of useful modifications.

In the first place, no partnership, however small, either common or limited, can be formed without considerable *eclat*, and the compliance with an almost endless series of formalities. The thirty-ninth article of the code requires that there should be a public declaration, or that agreements should be executed and acknowledged according to certain forms, as designated in article 1325 of the *code civile*—that is to say, there must be as many copies as there are contracting parties, and in each copy must be inserted, on pain of invalidity, a statement of how many copies, have been made. In matters of this kind, requiring often to be promptly carried into effect, these formalities are unnecessary, and the rapid movements of trade would certainly accommodate themselves much more readily to arrangements which could be formed or discontinued by letters, or by the most simple form of agreement, and of which the existence could be established by the correspondence, or by the books. This, however, is not all. The *code de commerce* is not to be satisfied with this small measure of regulation.

That an association, or partnership, may be legally formed, it is required, by article 42, that an extract from the articles of agreement be delivered, within a fortnight, to the clerk of the tribunal of commerce of the *arrondissement* in which the business is to be carried on, to be registered by him, and then placarded in the court-room during the period of three months, and the same forms must be observed in every *arrondissement* in which the company proposes to have a place of business. This extract must contain the name, surname, quality, and place of residence, of the several partners; the style and title by which the association is to be known; the names of the persons who are authorised to act and to sign for it; the amount of shares, or the sum furnished by each of the special partners; the time at which its operation is to commence, and the period fixed for its termination. If the partnership be continued beyond the time fixed, or if it be dissolved before that time, or if one or more of the associates should retire, or if any new clauses or stipulations be introduced into the agreement, or if there should be any change in the title by which the company is to be known, in all these cases the same formalities are required to be observed, and that they may be so, in their fullest extent, the legislator has thought proper to visit their omission with the most certain, if not the most moral of punishments, by declaring the contract invalid as regards the parties by whom it is formed, without prejudice, however, to the claims of third parties.

We are not disposed to lay unnecessary stress upon this abuse of the power of regulation, or upon the injury of which it is the cause—a serious injury, although habit tends to diminish our consciousness of it; but we would particularly desire the attention of our readers to the long and tedious announcement that is required of every association for the purposes of trade, great or small. The terms of a private contract are here required to be exposed to the public eye, during a period of three months. Far less is required for the publication of the banns of marriage. An union for trading purposes, if its duration should be required to bear any proportion to the length of its announcement, would never be dissolved under twenty or thirty years. Change—movement—are the life and spirit of trade, and it is a violation of its first principles to subject to such regulations and restrictions associations formed for its prosecution.

These precautions are said to be required as a security for the rights of third parties. If so necessary, how does it happen that they have been, thus far, dispensed with in England, where partnerships were formed without any of the ceremonies in use among us? Why, if so necessary, are they dispensed with in the *societes en participation*? We know that of them is not required the observance of the forms thus insisted on with regard to all others, and that their existence may be proved by the books, the correspondence, and even by oral testimony. Why this partial abandonment of securities, elsewhere deemed so needful? It is, say they, because it would be impossible to enforce them in regard to associations destined to so short a term of existence. The absurdity of requiring a three months' notice of a contract that might endure but as many days, was too obvious to escape even our legislators; but, if such securities were at all needed, the necessity therefor would appear to increase precisely as the term of existence of the association is diminished. A transient union leaves few traces of its having existed, and it is always difficult of proof; whereas, in more enduring associations, the proof is supplied by the actions of the parties interested. If books, and letters, and testimony of witnesses, are to be deemed sufficient evidence in the case of *societes en participation*, there is far greater reason why they should so be deemed in the other cases.

Between the *societes en participation*, which are generally established with a view to some single object, and those longer-lived associations, some of which appear destined to an existence almost equal in duration to the life of man, the distance is very great; so much so that room might be found for an infinite variety of associations, formed for given purposes, and without the expectation of any extraordinary duration. Such partnerships would very frequently be formed, and they would be most useful; but how is it possible to do so, when the law requires, invariably, three months' notice?

It would seem as if the lawgiver had thought that he was rendering good service in introducing and enforcing the principle of permanence. It is the common fault of legislators to attach importance to duration, and to endeavor to impress upon everything they touch this character of inviolability, as if it were to be desired that everything should outlive the wants for the satisfaction of which it had been needed, or that it should be perpetuated after it had ceased to be useful. Durability and permanence are not in harmony with the spirit of trade. So much the better then, say they, if by their enforcement we can place dikes in the way of this constantly moving flood! They seem to believe that the varying character of arrangements for the purposes of trade is produced by a mere desire of change—caprice, and that there is nothing in it that is reasonable. If, however, this tendency to change does exist, the cause is to be found in the infinite variety of circumstances and situations, and in the necessity that trade should accommodate its arrangements thereto. If it passes from one mode of combination to another, trying each in succession, it is because its ingenuity is constantly taxed to produce this accommodation. Should it continue unchangeable, while all is changing around it? It would be as well to advise the seaman always to avail himself of the same winds, and always to use the same sails.

Of the three kinds of association that are permitted, we see that the two first are greatly restrained in practice by the securities required by the law. Those which relate to the *societe anonyme* produces this effect in a still greater degree. In the former case, the legislator has been content with requiring an observance of certain forms, but in the latter, he has expressly prohibited the formation of any such association, except when directly authorised by the government.

We sometimes see attempts to justify this excess of regulation by a reference to the peculiar character of the *compagnie anonyme*, and to the insufficiency of security which it is supposed to offer to those who trade with it. We shall, in due season, inquire into the validity of this reason, but will first see what is the effect of this restriction, and how far it tends to prevent the extension of the principle of association. To understand this fully, it will be sufficient to acquaint ourselves with the labors incident to the formation of a company of that kind.

Let us suppose one or more individuals to have conceived the idea of forming such a company. If they were free, what would they do? Having determined upon this subject, and arranged their plan of operation, they would offer it for public consideration, perhaps to a limited number of persons, with whom, or a part of whom, they would form an union. All this would be perfectly simple and easy of performance, there being no difficulties to be overcome but those which were inherent to the project itself. The moment, however, that it became necessary to obtain the authority of the government, new and serious difficulties would present themselves.\*

The first is the doubt that arises in the minds of the projectors whether or not they shall be so fortunate as to obtain the necessary permission. With their project, promising as it appears to them, and capable, as they believe it to be, of yielding a handsome return to the investment, calculated, as it is, to meet the approbation of the capitalists upon whom they depend for carrying it out; will it be favorably regarded by the council of state, strangers as they are, by the nature of their avocations, to the ordinary course of commercial operations? Will these councillors, with so many other objects to claim their attention, give to the examination of the plan submitted to them, and in which they feel no interest, the same care that has been given to it by the projectors, or the same that they would give to one that directly affected their own interests? Can the parties interested make themselves heard and understood in this council, placed, as it is, so far above, and so distant from them? for Paris is not France! Can they ever reasonably hope to do so? Whatever may be the object in view, unless, perchance, the establishment of one of those rare institutions called for by unanimous public opinion, it is obvious that their chance is small, and yet it is with this minimum of chance that they have to commence their operations. Such a prospect is surely enough to make even the boldest hesitate, and to stifle in the germ the major part of the conceptions, however valuable, that would require the aid of such associations to carry them into effect.

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\* It will be seen that the course of things here described, resembles very much that in several of the states, particularly in those south of New England, where charters are deemed privileges to be granted to the few, while the many are debarred from availing themselves of the advantages derived from this particular mode of trading. [Translator.



Suppose, in the face of all these difficulties, the projectors to decide resolutely to attempt to carry out their scheme. To do so, they must commence by the devotion of their time and their labor; they must adopt measures that are both tedious and expensive, and this they must do with a perfect knowledge that it is likely to be both time and money wasted. Even this, however, is not all. The necessity for this application to the council of state gives rise to new difficulties of a very serious kind.

With whom should they commence? the capitalists? or the council of state? If their project be submitted without a previous subscription of the capital, the council will refuse, and perhaps with reason, to hear them; for how could they come to any decision in regard to an association in its embryo state, of the direction or extent of which they must be entirely ignorant? If the application be first made to capitalists, what reason can be offered to induce them to second their views? It is not sufficient to inform them of the object in view—of the nature of the plan—and to offer them the management; there are other difficulties to be overcome. They find in the minds of those persons whose aid is so much desired, the same doubts that had existed in their own, and they receive probably this answer—"Your project is excellent, and your plans are well arranged, but can you obtain the consent of the council of state?" This objection meets them everywhere, and what reply can they make? To those who are familiar with the caprices of capitalists, (we trust they will pardon us the word,) and who know how weak are frequently the reasons by which they are prevented from engaging in the most useful undertakings, it is unnecessary to say that this objection constitutes one of the most serious obstacles to the formation of such associations.

To obtain the approbation of the council, or even the right of presenting themselves at its bar, the projectors must first obtain a subscription of the capital, and this is an indispensable condition; but, to induce the capitalist to subscribe, they must first obtain the assent of the council, and this is equally indispensable; and thus they find themselves inclosed in a circle beyond which they cannot pass. In what manner then can their object be attained? It is difficult to answer this question, but most easy to see that to impose such restrictions upon the exercise of any right, is almost equal to its utter annihilation.

Thus far, we have not referred, in any manner, to the spirit which the council may be disposed to exercise its extensive powers, should the projectors be so fortunate as to place themselves in a position to entitle them to be heard. The bare idea of an application to it is sufficient to alarm most persons, particularly those of the provinces, to whom a council of state would seem to be an almost unapproachable tribunal. When before it, they will find it far more strict than necessity requires, it being accustomed to extend its control much further than would appear to be warranted by the nature of its functions. It should be sufficient for it to be satisfied that what is proposed to be done is offered in good faith, without inquiring into the probability of success, of which the parties themselves should be permitted to be the sober judges; and it would be well if they would learn thus to limit the sphere of their inquiries. If the reader feel desirous of being enlightened as to the manner of proceeding, he will find some curious details in the work of M. Vincens, before referred to. We regret much that the passage is too long for quotation. After having read it, he will ask himself by what extraordinary fortune is it that such an as-



sociation does now and then see the light, having extricated itself from the extraordinary net-work in which it had been enveloped.

What then is the *societe anonyme* in France? Is it a form of association that may be made useful for the purposes of trade, or of manufacture? Certainly not. It is one that is reserved to be granted as a privilege to certain extraordinary undertakings, recommended by their magnitude, or their striking character. These alone can present themselves before the council with any chance of success; regarding these projects, public opinion is already formed, and who can calculate upon powerful support from persons in and out of office. Undertakings of this description are not very numerous; and however great their importance in the particular cases to which they are applied, they are, taken collectively, less important than that great mass of operations of a secondary character, or rather of those whose utility, however great, is less obvious to the eyes of the world at large, and, consequently, less accurately appreciated, to which this mode of association is entirely prohibited. For still stronger reasons, the adoption of this form is rendered impracticable in the case of those bold enterprises, the object of which, is the opening of distant markets, and to which it seems peculiarly applicable; for with what chance of success could their assent to the formation of such a company be asked of a council of state, whose avowed object is the enforcement of care and circumspection?

Under such circumstances, as might readily have been foreseen would be the case, the habit of association has made but little progress in France, and trade has benefited but little by it. In fact, until within a few years, when it has passed the barriers attempted to be fixed by the law, we could scarcely form an idea, from what was to be seen among us, of the result that might be obtained from an union of forces. Even now, how few in number are the companies with transferable stock that are scattered here and there about us! In England, under more favorable circumstances, though still transcribed by the law, this habit has extended itself almost universally throughout society, and has been productive of a vast increase of power. The number of associations with transferable stock is almost incalculable, and the imagination is confounded by the mass of capital which they represent, the extent of liberty which they enjoy, and the wonders they have produced. Such likewise is the case in the United States. Without referring to their almost innumerable banks, held in shares, every place of any importance presents to our view a mass of associations for almost every conceivable purpose, many of which are of gigantic extent. They are also to be found in the smaller cities, the towns, and the villages, and everywhere aiding and stimulating individual exertion. In some cases they are limited to the performance of this duty, while in others their character is more exclusive, but in all they are found aiding, by their activity, their great resources, and the facilities they afford, to the productive power, and consequently to the national wealth. How wonderful is here the development of this great principle, and how infinitely does France fall behind these nations therein!

## ART. II.—THE CORN TRADE OF THE UNITED STATES.

AMONG the subjects which engross the public mind at the present day, no one, perhaps, is exciting more attention than the corn trade. The pecuniary interest of thousands on both sides of the Atlantic is involved in a greater or less degree in this question. Nor is this all. The philanthropist regards this subject as bearing immediately upon the comfort—the welfare of the laboring classes, especially in Great Britain. The position that the necessities of life should be multiplied as far as possible, and should be afforded to the poor at the lowest remunerating prices, will commend itself, not only to the sympathy, but to the judgment of the community. The political economist and the philanthropist may well turn their attention to this important subject, and probably their inquiries would lead them to the same result, viz., that bread, which has justly been denominated the “staff of life,” is not the most suitable subject for severe commercial restrictions.

But it is not our purpose to dwell upon this view of the subject. Our inquiry relates rather to the corn trade of the United States. In treating upon this subject, we shall naturally speak of the foreign market, and of the effect of the English corn laws upon this branch of our trade.

The United States are becoming a great agricultural people. We have no means of ascertaining the amount of grain produced in the country before the year 1840, when those who were employed to take the census, returned the amount of grain raised in the several states. It appears by these returns, that there were produced in the United States, in 1840, 84,823,700 bushels of wheat, 377,531,800 bushels of Indian corn, and 153,170,200 bushels of other grains. But, according to the agricultural report made to Congress by the Hon. H. L. Ellsworth, Commissioner of Patents, in 1844, there were grown in the United States, in 1843, 100,310,000 bushels of wheat, 496,618,000 bushels of Indian corn, and 181,390,000 bushels of other grains. The population of the United States, in 1840, was 17,069,400, and the estimated population, in 1843, was 19,183,500. From this comparison, it appears that the quantity of grain produced, hardly keeps pace with the increase of our population. This probably arises from the fact, that some of the old wheat lands are becoming exhausted, and a large per cent of our population is embarking in manufactures and the mechanic arts. This cause will continue to operate, so that, if our present protective policy remains unchanged, our production of bread-stuff will hardly keep pace with the increase of our population. Not that there is necessarily any inability to keep up this product; but the want of a market, and the national tendency of industrial pursuits, will prevent the growth of our surplus.

Of the 100,310,000 bushels of wheat, now produced in the country, fifteen-sixteenths are consumed at home, and the remaining sixteenth is sent to foreign countries. Of this product of 100,300,000 bushels of wheat, about one-seventh will be required for seed, which will bring the amount down to 85,973,000 bushels; from this, if we take one-sixteenth of the whole crop, it will reduce the quantity for home consumption to 79,705,000 bushels. On this estimate, which cannot be far from the truth, we consume 79,705,000 bushels, and export, either in wheat or its equivalent in flour, 6,268,000 bushels annually. If we were to divide the 79,705,000 bushels by our population, 19,138,500, it would give 4 16-100 bushels to each person in the country. It is perfectly obvious, however

that this is more than is consumed per head in some parts of the country, and less than what is consumed in others. Among the population engaged in commerce, manufactures, and the mechanic arts, we may safely estimate the consumption per head at 5 bushels of wheat, or its equivalent in flour. The same may be said of the population in the strictly wheat growing districts. These would comprehend nearly three-fifths of our entire population, and would consume some 57,415,000 bushels, leaving the other two-fifths nearly 3 bushels of wheat per head. There are, however, some portions of our country, where the farming population make use of Indian corn and rye for bread, and hence would not consume as much as 3 bushels of wheat per head. This is particularly true of the black population of the south. But, on the other hand, those employed as sailors, fishermen, &c., would require more than a barrel of flour, or 5 bushels of wheat a year. For instance, a soldier's ration, of a pound of flour per day, would amount to 1 6-7 barrel per year. Besides, there is a considerable quantity of flour consumed annually for starch, sizing, and manufacturing purposes.

Though the quantity of wheat grown in the country has increased considerably within the last half dozen years, the consumption in the country has increased in about the same ratio, so that the surplus for foreign export now is hardly greater than it was in 1831. Thousands who, ten years ago, consumed rye and Indian almost exclusively, now make wheat their principal bread-stuff, and this tendency is rapidly increasing. We venture, therefore, to predict that, if our present tariff policy remains undisturbed, the quantity of wheat or flour for foreign export from the United States, will hardly be more than it is at present. In our remarks upon the corn trade of the United States, we shall confine ourselves almost exclusively to wheat and wheat flour. The other grains are not exported to any great extent. Oats are annually brought into the country, and the same is true of potatoes; which, though they do not come under the designation of grain, are used for nearly the same purpose. There is an export of Indian corn and Indian meal, on an average, for the last fourteen years, of about 1,400,000 bushels, being in value \$890,000, as will be seen below.

The following table will show the amount and value of Indian corn and meal exported from the United States, from 1831, to 1844, inclusive; also the value of the export to England during that period:—

Years.	Bush. corn.	Value.	Bbls. meal.	Value.	Total value.	Val. of ex. of corn & meal to England.
1831,...	571,312	\$369,617	207,604	\$595,434	\$965,051	\$136,875
1832,...	451,230	278,740	146,710	480,035	758,775	180
1833,...	487,174	337,505	146,678	534,309	871,814	2,407
1834,...	303,449	203,573	149,609	491,910	695,483	none.
1835,...	755,781	588,276	166,782	629,389	1,217,665	230
1836,...	124,791	103,702	140,917	621,560	725,262	none.
1837,...	151,276	147,982	159,435	763,652	911,637	1,396
1838,...	172,321	141,992	171,843	722,399	864,391	116
1839,...	162,306	141,095	165,672	658,421	799,516	470
1840,...	572,279	338,333	206,063	705,183	1,043,516	59,946
1841,...	535,727	312,954	232,284	692,457	995,411	7,146
1842,...	600,308	345,150	209,199	617,817	962,967	75,909
1843, 9 m,	672,608	281,749	174,354	454,166	635,915	9
1844,...	825,160	404,008	248,382	641,028	1,045,030	38,534
Av.,....	452,537	\$285,276	180,403	\$614,125	\$892,316	\$24,515

In the above table we have the amount and value of Indian corn and corn meal exported for fourteen consecutive years. If we divide this period into two equal portions, of seven years each, we shall see that, during the first period, the average export of corn was annually 406,430 bushels, and during the second period, 498,644 bushels; and that the barrels of meal would average 159,693 annually, during the first seven years, and 201,113 during the last. It will also be seen that the total value of the export of corn and meal, during the first half of the whole period, would average \$877,955 annually, and during the last half, \$906,678. It will be seen by the above, that the quantity of corn and meal exported has just about kept pace with our population; but the value of these exports has fallen much below the increase of our population. While the population has increased, in seven years, about 22 per cent, the value of these exports has increased only about 3 per cent.

Another fact worthy of notice in the corn trade is, that the export of wheat and Indian corn do not seem to be governed by the same laws. From 1831 to 1832 the export of wheat fell off four-fifths, while the Indian corn exported did not fall off one-half. In 1836, 1837, and 1838, the export of wheat was merely nominal, while the import was over 5,500,000 bushels. But, notwithstanding the wheat trade runs so much against us, during those years we exported nearly the usual quantity of Indian meal, and the Indian corn did not fall off more than three-fourths. It will also be seen that the quantity exported to England has been considerable since the year 1831. But the wheat trade of the United States is the trade to which we wish to call the attention of the reader. Our average export of wheat and flour for the last fourteen years has amounted to about 5,506,000 bushels, or 1,100,000 barrels, costing \$6,233,500 on an annual average; though during the same period we have imported in wheat and flour about 463,400 bushels annually upon the average. These imports were, however, mostly confined to the years 1835 to 1838, inclusive. Below, we give a table of exports and imports for the whole period specified. By the table it will be seen that the greatest export was in 1840, when we sent abroad 1,897,501 barrels of flour, and 1,720,860 bushels of wheat, valued at \$11,779,098. With this single exception, our imports in 1831 were greater than they have been since. The total value of wheat and flour exported in 1831 was \$10,461,715, being a sum greater by \$1,879,000 than the export of wheat and flour, any year since, with the exception above mentioned. It will also be seen that, in 1837, we imported 4,000,000 bushels of wheat, at a cost of \$4,276,975. It will also be seen by a comparison of imports and exports that the trade in wheat is more fluctuating than that of flour. In 1837, when we imported about 4,000,000 bushels of wheat, we exported about 320,000 barrels of flour. This arose from the fact that our commerce is so extensive that no one cause can at the same time effect our trade with all the nations with which we have commercial intercourse.

The following table will show the exports and imports of wheat and wheat flour from and into the United States, with the value of each, from 1831 to 1844, inclusive. In the column of imports it is all put down as wheat, though a part of it was imported in flour; it is carried out as wheat and reduced to bushels for convenience:—



Year.	Bbls. flour.	EXPORTS.			Tot. val.	IMPORTS.	
		Value.	Bush. wheat.	Value.		Bushels.	Value.
1831.	1,806,529	\$9,938,445	408,910	\$523,270	\$10,461,715	633	\$699
1832.	864,919	4,880,623	88,304	93,500	4,974,123	1,191	1,180
1833.	955,768	5,613,010	32,221	29,592	5,642,602	1,697	1,716
1834.	835,352	4,520,781	36,948	39,598	4,560,379	1,307	1,295
1835.	779,396	4,394,777	47,762	51,405	4,446,182	311,805	268,623
1836.	505,400	3,572,599	2,062	2,062	3,574,561	650,629	565,500
1837.	318,719	2,987,209	17,303	27,206	3,014,415	4,000,000	4,276,976
1838.	448,161	3,603,299	6,291	8,125	3,617,724	927,180	940,838
1839.	923,151	6,925,170	96,325	144,191	7,069,361	41,725	57,747
1840.	1,897,501	10,143,615	1,720,860	1,635,483	11,779,098	1,436	1,069
1841.	1,515,817	7,759,646	868,585	822,881	8,582,527	652	900
1842.	1,283,602	7,375,356	817,958	916,616	8,292,308	4,153	2,796
1843.*	841,474	3,763,073	311,685	264,109	4,027,182	12,121	8,542
1844.	1,438,603	6,732,488	558,607	500,410	7,232,898	.....	.....
Av.,.	1,029,593	\$5,872,149	358,130	\$361,317	\$6,233,533	463,425	\$463,529

From the exhibit contained in the above table, it will be seen that, for the whole period of fourteen years, our export of wheat has not increased so rapidly as our population. In 1831, with a population of 13,000,000, our export of wheat and flour was \$10,461,000. In 1840, when our population was 17,000,000, our export of the same articles amounted to \$11,779,000. If the value of our exports had kept pace with our population, it would have amounted, in 1840, to 136,679,000, being nearly \$2,000,000 more than the actual export for that year. Thus, if we take the two favored years within the whole period, we shall find that the value of exports from 1831 to 1840 has increased only about 12 per cent, while the population increased about 30 per cent. Or if we take the period of five years, from 1840 to 1844, inclusive, we shall find the export to have fallen off about 39 per cent, while the population has increased about 16 per cent. If the export had increased since 1840 at the same rate as the population, it would, in 1844, have amounted to \$13,500,000; or if the export had increased with the population since 1831, it would, in 1844, have amounted to \$16,700,000, which is 130 per cent more than the value actually exported.

From this view of the subject, it appears that our population is gaining rapidly upon our exports. But we all know that there may be a fallacy in reasoning from one particular year to another. There may be causes which operate at particular times, which may not occur again; and, hence, no one comparison is decisive upon a subject of this nature. The export in 1831 was unusually large—larger by 43 per cent than the average for the two preceding years. This was owing to a partial failure of the crop, in Great Britain, one of our principal markets; and consequently the increased price. But, from 1832 to 1838, as we learn from Tooke, a standard writer upon prices, the crops in Great Britain were so abundant, that she produced all that was necessary for home consumption—nay, so great was the supply, that wheat was given to domestic animals, and used for distillation. This circumstance induced the farmers to sow less, and the succession of two or three unfavorable seasons reduced the quantity and increased the price. During this scarcity in Great Britain, and on the continent generally, the crops in this country were unusually good; and hence the large export in 1840. These statements,

\* The commercial year 1843 consists of only three quarters, or nine months.



made on the best authority, are confirmed by the prices of wheat in England during the period spoken of. The price of wheat in Great Britain in different years has been as follows:—

	s.	d.		s.	d.
In 1830,.....	64	3 per quarter.	In 1838,.....	64	7 per quarter.
1831,.....	66	4 "	1839,.....	70	8 "
1832,.....	58	8 "	1840,.....	67	4 "
1833,.....	52	11 "	1841,.....	64	4 "
1834,.....	46	2 "	1842,.....	56	8 "
1835,.....	39	4 "	1843,.....	48	0 "
1836,.....	48	6 "	1844,.....	49	0 "
1837,.....	55	10 "			

This view of the prices in Great Britain will serve to show in some degree, why our exports were greater in 1831 and 1840 than ordinary.

From every view we are able to take of this important subject, we are confirmed in the position which we have already taken—that our surplus of wheat and flour for foreign transportation does not increase so rapidly as our population. And, as we have before said, if the present protective policy of the country should continue, we doubt whether our export will increase at all. As manufactures and the mechanic arts increase, the home consumption will keep pace with the increase of population. Besides, we all know, that for the last five or six years our crops have been unusually good. But this will not always last. We may naturally expect that a succession of small crops may follow a succession of large ones; and even a considerable falling off in the crop for a single year would effect our exports for at least two years.

The impression seems to be very general among us, that the market of Great Britain is the principal one for our bread-stuffs; and hence we hear such bitter complaints of the English corn law. But we apprehend that the importance of the English market is greatly overrated. For the last fourteen years, our average export of flour has been 1,029,593 barrels, while our export to Great Britain during the same period has been only about 170,000 barrels, being less than one-sixth of the whole amount; and the same is true of the export of wheat. We give below a table of exports of wheat and flour to the principal markets for the last thirteen years, together with the total export to all foreign markets for the same period.

Table of Exports of Wheat and Flour to the principal markets, together with the total exports to all foreign markets, for thirteen consecutive years.

Years.	ENGLAND.		BR. AMERICAN COLONIES.		CUBA.	
	Bush. wheat.	Bbbs. flour.	Bush. wheat.	Bbbs. flour.	Bush. wheat.	Bbbs. flr.
1831, .....	362,153	865,744	12,505	150,795	.....	97,999
1832,.....	55,050	95,868	20,777	135,640	.....	98,248
1833,.....	.....	21,707	31,421	168,127	.....	119,197
1834,.....	.....	19,487	23,247	134,975	.....	102,837
1835,.....	.....	5,376	.....	76,405	.....	93,511
1836,.....	.....	161	2,082	42,300	.....	92,390
1837,.....	.....	.....	.....	23,316	.....	55,537
1838,.....	.....	8,295	6,076	29,591	.....	79,681
1839,.....	6,033	167,582	72,113	149,407	.....	90,459
1840,.....	607,108	605,778	1,066,604	432,356	788	69,819
1841,.....	119,854	205,144	695,389	377,806	.....	69,387
1842,.....	143,330	204,896	655,503	369,048	4,179	46,846
1843,.....	.....	14,214	293,842	190,322	.....	29,437
Average,.	99,502	170,327	221,498	175,391	382	80,411

TABLE—Continued.

Years.	Brazil.		British West Indies.		Tot. Ex. to all For. m'ts.	
	Bush. wheat.	Bbls. flour.	Bush. wheat.	Bbls. flour.	Bush. wheat.	Bbls. flour.
1831,.....	.....	198,870	.....	100,382	408,445	1,806,529
1832,.....	.....	103,289	.....	100,167	83,304	864,919
1833,.....	.....	259,536	.....	100,057	32,221	955,768
1834,.....	.....	152,603	.....	95,816	36,948	835,352
1835,.....	.....	161,460	.....	118,307	47,762	779,396
1836,.....	.....	118,470	2,062	70,305	2,062	505,400
1837,.....	.....	60,480	.....	68,323	17,303	318,719
1838,.....	.....	125,275	137	75,524	6,291	448,161
1839,.....	.....	177,337	14,129	139,340	96,325	923,151
1840,.....	.....	197,823	33,743	232,329	1,720,860	1,897,501
1841,.....	16,457	262,406	41,116	246,465	868,585	1,515,817
1842,.....	.....	189,317	14,920	237,478	817,958	1,283,602
1843,.....	.....	192,454	17,399	170,577	311,685	841,474
Average,.	1,266	170,716	9,500	135,005	342,709	997,771

By the above table it will be seen that the market of England is, by no means, our only market for bread-stuffs. During this period Brazil has taken, upon an average, 289 barrels of flour more than England, and Cuba has taken nearly half as much as England. We have sent, in the same period, the annual average of 5,062 barrels more to the British American colonies than to England herself, and the British West Indies have taken only about 26 per cent less than the mother country. It appears, by this tabular view of our exports, that England has, during this period, taken only 17 per cent of our export of flour, and about 29 per cent of our export of wheat. But it is obvious that a portion of wheat and flour sent to the British American colonies, finds its way into Great Britain. By the British tables it will be seen that the excess of wheat brought into England from her American Colonies, over the amount sent from England to these colonies, would average, from 1829 to 1842, inclusive, 152,429 bushels a year, and that the excess of flour would average 51,608 barrels. By adding this to the quantity which we have sent direct to England, it would make the average of wheat 251,931 bushels, and flour 221,935 barrels. It is, however, probably true that, in 1843 and 1844, the proportion of wheat and flour which have gone to England through Canada, has been somewhat greater than in preceding years. We might safely estimate the average of wheat up to this present time at 260,000 bushels, and the flour at 240,000 barrels. According to this estimate, about 76 per cent of our whole export of wheat, and about 24 per of our exports of flour, goes to the British market.

Since Great Britain is our greatest market for bread-stuffs, it becomes important to inquire, what are the prospects with reference to this market in future? The present consumption of Great Britain may be estimated at 125,000,000 bushels of wheat, or its equivalent in flour. The quantity of wheat and flour imported for home consumption, from 1829 to 1842, inclusive, would average 10,352,500 bushels annually; and of this, the average of 727,126 bushels came from her colonies—leaving the annual average of 9,625,370 bushels imported from foreign nations. But the average importations into Great Britain for home consumption, for the last five years, has been, from foreign nations, 19,148,265 bushels annually, and from her colonies 1,008,190 bushels annually—making a total average of 20,156,455 bushels. When we take into view the vast improvements in English agriculture which are now going on, it is safe to

say that her grain crop keeps pace with her population. Drummond, an approved English writer, in a work recently published in London, tells us that, owing to the advantages of a new machine, seed is sown less thickly than formerly, which, of itself, will supply some five or six millions of bushels of the deficiency of her wheat crop. If this be true, it is an important fact in relation to her demand upon foreign nations for a supply. This saving of seed will be equal to about one-fourth of her deficit, and about four times as much as our whole export to England, direct, and through her colonies.

The following table, showing the imports of wheat and flour into Great Britain for home consumption for fourteen years, is taken from a report made to the Parliament in 1843 :—

Years.	Foreign. Bushels.	Colonial. Bushels.	Total. Bushels.
1829,.....	11,504,768	68,840	11,572,608
1830,.....	13,338,304	484,472	13,822,776
1831,.....	10,952,352	1,101,568	12,053,920
1832,.....	1,510,160	1,551,880	3,062,040
1833,.....	10,560	661,648	672,208
1834,.....	2,320	517,472	519,792
1835,.....	960	227,440	228,400
1836,.....	8,360	232,496	240,856
1837,.....	1,686,176	293,000	1,979,176
1838,.....	14,550,624	237,176	14,787,800
1839,.....	21,591,848	101,936	21,693,784
1840,.....	18,291,096	910,392	19,201,488
1841,.....	19,105,264	2,076,808	21,182,072
1842,.....	22,202,512	1,714,648	23,917,160
Average,.....	9,625,378	727,126	10,352,504

From this table it appears that, for the last five years, she has imported on an average 20,000,000 bushels of wheat, or its equivalent in flour. Of this 20,000,000 bushels, about one-twentieth only is from the United States direct; or if we add to this what finds its way into Great Britain through Canada, it would not amount to more than one-tenth. The amount sent to England from the principal grain growing nations, in 1841, will be seen below.

There were imported into Great Britain, in 1841, 22,617,500 bushels of wheat, or its equivalent in flour, from the different nations as follow :—

Russia,.....bushels	498,205
Sweden,.....	4,410
Denmark,.....	1,915,272
Prussia,.....	7,134,400
Germany,.....	5,295,674
Holland,.....	815,964
Belgium,.....	228,620
France,.....	1,643,932
Italy and Islands,.....	901,600
United States,.....	1,107,840
Colonies and other nations,.....	3,071,583

Here we have the quantity of wheat and flour (in bushels) brought into England in 1841. We have selected that year, as furnishing a fair average of the imports into England for the last five years, and, at least, a fair average of our exports abroad and to that kingdom. It will be seen that

Russia supplies nearly half as much as the United States, that Holland supplies more than three-fourths as much, and that Italy and the Italian islands nearly as much; while France supplies about 48 per cent, Denmark 72 per cent, Germany 378 per cent, and Prussia 544 per cent, more than the United States. It is true that, if we include the grain which reaches Great Britain through Canada, our supply of the English market will be much greater. But even then, it would not amount to more than one-tenth of the English supply. Nor have we any good reason to believe that our export to Great Britain will materially increase. We have already alluded to the fact that the agriculture of Great Britain was improving more rapidly than the agriculture of this country. The improved mode of seeding will supply a part of her deficiency. Besides, the wheat crop in England, in 1844, has been better than the average, while in this country there has been a falling off of, at least, 5,000,000 bushels.

England now obtains her supply, and, in all probability, will continue to obtain it principally from the continent. The north of Europe possesses several advantages over us in the trade with Great Britain. Labor is so exceedingly cheap, (being about one shilling per day, without board,) that they can undersell us in almost any production. The following are the prices of wheat per quarter at the principal European marts, for a series of years.

Year.	Dantzic.		Hamburg.		Amsterdam.		Antwerp.		Odessa.		General average.	
	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
1830,.....	38	11	34	9	41	4	34	8	24	10	34	10
1831,.....	42	11	43	5	42	1	39	2	26	0	38	8
1832,.....	34	0	34	2	40	2	32	10	22	8	32	9
1833,.....	30	3	25	3	32	0	20	0	26	10	26	10
1834,.....	25	5	24	7	24	0	18	9	28	0	24	1
1835,.....	22	2	23	0	28	1	19	9	21	0	22	9
1836,.....	25	3	28	11	28	0	25	3	18	11	25	3
1837,.....	26	6	28	8	29	10	25	7	18	5	25	9
1838,.....	34	7	42	8	44	0	36	0	23	8	38	2
1839,.....	34	8	48	0	49	0	54	0	29	0	42	4
1840,.....	39	0	47	0	40	0	50	0	25	10	40	4
1841,.....	44	9	36	0	39	0	54	0	26	10	40	3
1842,.....	40	1	40	5	40	7	53	0	23	8	39	2
Average, ..	33	8	35	1	36	11	35	6	24	3	33	3

By the foregoing table it will be seen that the average price of wheat per bushel, during the period named, at Dantzic, is 92 cents; at Hamburg, 96 cents; at Amsterdam, 101 cents; at Antwerp, 97 cents; at Odessa, 67 cents; and that the general average amounts 90 cents per bushel.

The price of wheat at our ports, during the same period, was as follows:—

In 1830,.....	\$1 15 per bushel.	In 1837,.....	\$1 83 per bushel.
1831,.....	1 18 "	1838,.....	1 54 "
1832,.....	1 15 "	1839,.....	1 42 "
1833,.....	1 13 "	1840,.....	1 10 "
1834,.....	1 08 "	1841,.....	1 03 "
1835,.....	1 19 "	1842,.....	1 16 "
1836,.....	1 44 "		

The average of the above prices is \$1 26 per bushel, being 36 cents more per bushel at our ports, than at the above-mentioned ports in Europe.



From this comparison of prices, it will be seen that the odds are fearfully against us. How then can we compete with the north of Europe? Certainly, not in the first cost of the grain. And how is it with transportation or freight? Have we the advantage of them in this respect? By official documents laid before the British Parliament it appears that, during the above period, the freight from these ports to Great Britain was, on an average, 11 cents per bushel. Mr. Ellsworth, in his report to Congress, in 1843, estimates the freight from our ports to England at 35 or 36 cents per cwt. Wheat cannot weigh less than 56 lbs. per bushel, and hence cannot be freighted to England for less than 17 or 18 cents per bushel. The difference in freight and in first cost, would make a balance against us of 42 cents per bushel. But, as the year 1838 was one of uncommonly high prices for grain in this country, we will omit that year in our estimate, which will reduce this balance down to about 37 cents per bushel; and from this we should deduct about 9 cents as the difference of exchange, which would bring the difference down to 28 cents on the bushel.

It may, perhaps, be thought that we prove too much, and show from this data that we can send no grain to Great Britain. But every practical man knows that, in the course of trade, articles will be imported or exported from one country to another when the prices in the two countries would seem to forbid it. Our merchants are frequently indebted abroad, and must send forward something to meet their payments. Ships are frequently going out with but a partial cargo, and will take freight exceedingly low. And besides, our wheat is generally sent to England in the form of flour, thereby reducing weight and the cost of transportation some 18 per cent. These are the causes which come in and neutralize the difference in prices, so as to enable us to send our wheat and flour to the mother country. We mention these things to show that our corn trade with Great Britain is, after all, rather the result of accidental causes than otherwise. It has been so for years past, and will be so for years to come.

During the years 1843 and 1844, wheat has been cheaper in this country than it has been before for a great number of years, ranging from 90 cents to 1 dollar, making an average of 95 cents per bushel. During this period, the prices in Europe have been proportionably low. During last autumn, the price of wheat at Dantzic was only 75 cents; at Hamburg, 82 cents; at Rostack, 77 cents, free on board; at Odessa, 50 cents, free on board. The English consul writes from Odessa at the close of 1842 as follows:—"Under the present circumstances—extraordinary low freight, and favorable exchange—a shipment of the best wheat could now be made and delivered in England on the following terms, viz:—

	s.	d.	
First cost,.....	22	6	per quarter.
Charge for loading,.....	2	5	"
Freight,.....	6	7	"
Insurance and factorage in England,.....	4	0	"
Total, .....	35	6	per quarter."

According to this estimate, wheat from the Black sea can be sold in England at 97 cents per bushel, and since that period wheat at Odessa has fallen 12 or 15 cents per bushel. The Farmers' Magazine, publish-

ed in London, for January, 1845, informs us that, up to the last of November, there had been shipped from Dantzic to Great Britain 2,365,544 bushels of wheat, which could be bought for from 70 to 82 cents, and shipped for 11 cents, enabling them to sell it in England for 87 cents per bushel free of duty; and that wheat from Odessa could be sold in Great Britain, independent of the duty, for from 75 to 80 cents per bushel.

With such competitors we have no great reason to expect that our corn trade with Great Britain will increase. Nor is there any occasion for an increase. Our surplus, as we have already remarked, is about stationary, and we are perpetually seeking new markets abroad, where we dispose of some of our bread-stuffs. Nor is it probable that the demand in England will increase. England now requires only about 20,000,000 bushels annually, and the Parliament reports show that the continent can supply the whole of that amount.

We have been the more particular upon this branch of the subject, because an impression seems to be somewhat general, especially in the grain growing states, that, if Great Britain would repeal her corn laws, we should supply her whole market. But how such a repeal could give us the English market, is more than we can comprehend. The prices on the continent are lower, as we have seen, than they are in this country, and freight is less from the Baltic and North sea than from the United States. It is true that her population would consume more wheat, if the price were reduced by the repeal of her restrictions. But the grain growing states in the north of Europe can easily increase their product with the English demand. Another effect of the repeal of the corn laws upon our country would be this. By reducing the price of living in Great Britain, it would reduce the price of labor, and so enable the manufacturers to produce their fabrics at a less price. The effect of this would be to break down our own manufactures, and thereby destroy the home market for the corn and wheat of the grain growing states.

But we need not speculate upon the effect of the repeal of the corn laws. These laws will not be repealed. When this subject was brought before Parliament, in June last, it was voted down by an overwhelming majority—328 to 124, being a majority of 204. With this fact before us, we may rest assured that Great Britain will not depart from her present policy. Nor have we, as a nation, any reason to desire such a repeal. With the present system we enjoy a kind of monopoly in the corn trade. We can send our wheat into Canada for a mere nominal duty, where it is ground, and then sent to England on the favored terms of colonial flour. This trade through Canada is increasing. The London Farmers' Magazine, for August, 1844, says that 300,000 barrels of flour may be expected from Montreal in the shipping season, being about three times the usual quantity. This flour pays only a nominal duty of about 19 cents per barrel, while the same flour sent from this country would be subjected to a duty of \$1 13 per barrel. This privilege of the Canadian trade is worth more to us than a repeal of the corn laws. This trade is increasing, and in a few years will probably become an object of great importance to us.

But, after all, the home market is the great market for our bread-stuff. What becomes of the vast amount of wheat that is grown in the country? The product, we have already seen, is about 100,000,000 bushels, and only about 6,300,000 bushels are sent abroad. The state of Ohio alone

produces three times as much as we export annually; and the little state of Delaware produces twice as much Indian corn as our annual export. It is not possible to state the exact amount of wheat which is consumed in the country by those engaged in other pursuits than agriculture. If we take those engaged in manufactures and trades, in mining, in the fisheries, in all their forms, in commerce and navigation in all their varieties, and the learned professions, with their families and dependants, it would amount to one-quarter of our population, viz.—5,000,000 persons, who are not producers, but consumers of bread-stuffs. These will consume one barrel of flour, or five bushels of wheat per head—making a constant market for 25,000,000 bushels of wheat, equal to about one-fourth of our whole product. The New England states alone consume annually 1,400,000 barrels of flour, or 7,000,000 bushels of wheat more than they produce; which is about 700,000 bushels more than our entire export.

From this view of the subject, it will be seen that the great object of the grain growing states is to cherish our home market. Any policy which builds up manufactures, which encourages the mechanic arts, and multiplies callings and increases the number which engages in them—in a word, that policy which diverts labor from agriculture, promotes the interests of the farmer. Agricultural products are so abundant that they hardly command remunerating prices. Let a portion of our population now engaged in that calling be diverted to other pursuits, and the necessary effect would be to increase the price of agricultural products, and so give the yeomanry of the country a greater reward for their toil.

The value of our corn trade is, we are confident, greatly overrated by the thousands. That the reader may see the relative value of several of our exports for a series of years, we will give below the amount in separate columns.

EXPORTS OF SEVERAL ARTICLES OF DOMESTIC PRODUCTION, FROM 1821 TO 1843, INCLUSIVE.

Year.	Fisheries. Value.	Beef and pork.* Value.	Cotton Piece Goods. Value.	Other manufactures. Value.	Wheat and flour. Value.
1831,.....	\$1,889,472	\$2,596,422	\$1,126,313	\$4,677,886	\$10,461,715
1832,.....	2,558,538	2,993,103	1,229,574	4,194,440	4,974,123
1833,.....	2,402,469	3,368,086	2,532,517	4,355,712	5,642,602
1834,.....	2,071,493	2,741,319	2,085,994	4,627,391	4,560,379
1835,.....	2,174,524	2,580,102	2,858,681	4,079,308	4,446,182
1836,.....	2,660,058	2,196,493	2,255,734	4,660,014	3,574,561
1837,.....	2,711,452	1,981,118	2,831,473	4,980,375	3,014,415
1838,.....	3,175,576	1,998,768	3,758,755	5,251,603	3,617,724
1839,.....	1,917,968	2,276,426	2,975,033	5,044,138	7,069,361
1840,.....	3,198,370	2,729,026	3,549,607	7,064,160	11,779,098
1841,.....	2,846,851	4,031,270	3,122,546	7,653,040	8,582,527
1842,.....	2,823,610	4,230,226	2,970,690	6,799,167	8,292,308
1843,.....	2,112,548	3,721,937	3,223,550	4,131,176	4,027,182
Average,.	2,503,763	2,880,330	2,655,420	5,116,031	6,149,397

It will be seen by the above table, that wheat and flour, which seem to be regarded as the great and almost the only article of export, except cotton and tobacco, averages only about \$6,000,000—less than two and a half times as much as either the fisheries, beef and pork, or cotton piece goods. It will also be seen that the average of manufactures exported,

\* Including tallow, butter, cheese, lard, bacon, hams, &c., &c.

exceeds the average of wheat and flour by more than \$1,500,000; and that, for the last two years, cotton piece goods alone have amounted to more than half as much as the export of wheat and flour. We have taken the divisions or classification of exports as we find them in the Commercial Document; but it is evident that many other articles than those set down as manufactures might, with perfect propriety, be classed under that head. We will take the year 1842 as an example. Spermaceti candles, \$318,997, are placed under the head of fisheries; boards, shingles, staves and hewn timber, \$2,203,537; all manufactures of wood, \$623,718; tar, pitch, rosin and turpentine, \$743,329; pot and pearl ashes, \$882,741; are placed under the head of products of the forest. It is manifest, however, that some of these are strictly, and others substantially manufactured articles; and these, for that year, amounted to the sum of \$4,228,993; if these articles were added to the manufactures, it would make the value of manufactures exported annually, at least, one-third larger than the export of wheat and flour. We mention this fact, to show that our corn trade with foreign nations is not of a character so all-absorbing as some appear to suppose. It is an important trade, it is true; but there are others equally important.

The true policy for the United States, or for any people, is to supply its own wants, and, as far as practicable, render itself independent of foreign nations. Our prosperity in peace, and our success in war, depend, in a great degree, upon our ability to furnish for ourselves all that is necessary for our comfort and happiness—all that may contribute to our independence. We have, within our extended territory and diversified climate, all the elements of national wealth and greatness. If we cultivate the means which a merciful Providence has put within our reach, encourage our own industry, and develop our own resources, we shall be able not only to produce the bread which we eat, but the clothing which we wear. And the prosperity of the country depends upon the due encouragement of all classes and callings—that they may prove co-workers together in the great cause of national independence.

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#### ART. III.—THE ERIE CANAL ENLARGEMENT.

WHEN the Erie canal was constructed, it was calculated that boats of thirty tons would be best adapted to its navigation; such a boat it was expected would be drawn by one horse. The size of the boat was to be seven feet wide, draw three feet of water, and be seventy-five feet long. In view of this kind of boat, the locks were made ninety feet long, and fifteen feet in width in the chamber, designed to pass two boats at a time. A model boat on this plan was built and put in operation on the first opening of the middle section of the canal. The model was taken from English canal boats. It was doubtless considered that experience in England had led to this, as best adapted to canal navigation. The model, however, was never copied on the Erie canal. There would, probably, have been some experimenting on the model plan, had not the first navigation of the canal been made with the Durham boats, that had been in use on the Mohawk river. As soon as the canal was opened, these river boats, being ready, entered the canal, and engaged more or less in its navigation. The



boats then built for the canal, followed more the form of the river boats than the model canal boat.

The consequence has been, that no boats have been used in the navigation of this canal that would admit of two passing a lock at the same time. At the time the Erie canal was commenced, there were intelligent men, who advanced the opinion, that it would not be capable of accommodating the freight that would ultimately seek this channel for market. When the subject of dimensions was discussed by the canal commissioners and engineers, they decided on the original size, as being, under all the circumstances, best calculated to meet the interests of the enterprise. The novelty, at that time, of such undertakings, the great magnitude of the work, and the incredulity of a large portion of the citizens as to its success and usefulness, no doubt, produced a cautious action on the part of the commissioners in settling this question. The friends of the enterprise were generally satisfied with their decision. Accustomed to view the power of a horse as sufficient to draw but half or three-quarters of a ton, an improvement that would increase his capacity to 30 tons, seemed to reach all the economy that could be expected.

The dimensions of this canal were 28 feet in width at bottom, 40 feet at top water, and 4 feet deep.

The necessity of economising the expenditures, and the want of experience, led to many errors in the original construction of this work. Among these may be mentioned that of laying the canal, to a great extent, on a low level, as compared with the adjacent country, and the streams that passed it. By this means, numerous small streams, and some large ones, emptied their waters directly into the canal, and deposited more or less of sand, mud, and gravel on its bottom. This deposit had to be removed mostly in the spring of the year, before navigation was opened; and, being necessarily a difficult and expensive operation, was rarely done so as to give the navigation the benefit of a full depth of water. The location of locks, particularly at Cohoes, and the narrow and crooked channel of the canal, at Little Falls, and other places, contribute much to impair the navigation. Under these circumstances, the rapidly increasing trade had so filled the canal, in 1833, that measures to improve the navigation were required to meet its wants.

In May, 1834, the legislature authorised the canal commissioners to double the locks between Albany and Syracuse. The commissioners, during that season, had surveys and examinations made to carry out this measure. This gave rise to a discussion of the question, whether the second set of locks should not be adapted to a canal of larger dimensions, with such improvements in its general character as were practicable? At this time, no attention of consequence appeared to have been given to other considerations, than what was sufficient to afford the necessary capacity to the trade—economy in the traction of boats was not generally regarded. At that time, I was engaged as the engineer of the Chenango canal. The late governor, Wm. C. Bouck, was, at that time, a canal commissioner, and had charge of that canal. With Mr. Bouck I had frequent conversations in relation to the improvements contemplated on the Erie canal. Having an intimate knowledge of the greatest portion of the Erie canal, and knowing the necessity of many improvements, it appeared to me important that nothing should be done until the whole subject was well considered. The trade had increased beyond the high-

est expectation of its friends, and had every prospect of going on increasing for a long time to come. It appeared to me that three considerations were important to be kept in view:—first, to provide a capacity that would meet the ultimate wants of the trade; second, to provide the most economical transportation; and, third, to provide for a class of boats that could be towed safely and economically on the Hudson, thereby saving the expense, delay, and loss consequent on transshipment.

Mr. Bouie took a deep interest in this enterprise, and requested me to investigate the question relating to economy of transportation. In January, 1835, I addressed a letter to him, giving the result of my investigations. This letter he submitted to the canal committee of the assembly, who appended it to their report of that session. In that letter, I endeavored to show that, on a canal of 70 feet width at surface, and 7 feet deep, with locks 16 feet wide, and 110 feet long in the chamber, the power of traction required would be about 53 per cent per ton—and that the total cost of transportation would be 50 per cent, or one half—of that required on the Erie canal at that time.

This investigation many persons were disposed to question, both at that time and subsequently—denying that it would be realized in practice. I have never known, however, that any one has entered into any investigations to prove its fallacy; nor have I ever doubted that this economy in transportation, on the completion of the enlargement on this scale, as finally settled upon by the Canal Board, would be fully realized. So long, however, as the work remains unfinished, the question in relation to this canal cannot be practically settled.

But the value of this kind of improvement has not escaped the vigilant eye of private enterprise. Incorporated companies have turned their attention to it for the purpose of increasing the capacity, and economising the expense, of transportation. The Delaware and Hudson Canal Company have carried an improvement of this kind to such an extent as to afford very interesting results. I will introduce their experiment with a few general remarks on the Delaware and Hudson canal.

This canal commences at tide water, at Rondout, near the west bank of the Hudson river, runs through Ulster, Sullivan, and part of Orange county, in this state, to the Delaware river, near Carpenter's Point, a distance of 60 miles, thence up the Delaware, about 22 miles, to the mouth of the Lackawaxen river; crossing the Delaware, it follows the valley of the Lackawaxen, in Pennsylvania, about 25 miles, to the village of Honesdale. The total length is about 108 miles, and has ——— feet lockage in 110 locks. At Honesdale, the canal meets the Carbondale railroad, by which the coal of the Lackawana valley is there brought to it. The main object of the canal was the coal trade. The canal was commenced in 1825; in the fall of 1829 it was opened for navigation; about 8,000 tons of coal were brought to market, through it, that year. That portion of the route lying in the valleys of the Lackawaxen, Delaware, and lower Rondout rivers, was of a very difficult and expensive character for a canal. Those valleys are narrow, and bounded by steep and high hills—to a large extent, rock rising from the water's edge to several hundred feet in height. The enterprise, at the time the work was begun, required the most energetic and persevering efforts to surmount the natural obstacles it had to meet, and to sustain the means necessary, in the face of a strong public sentiment, which had arrayed itself against it.

It is but simple justice to the managers of this work, to say they evinced, under great discouragements, an eminent degree of devotion, ability and perseverance, in completing a work that has conferred great benefits on the city of New York. Although other avenues to the coal fields of Pennsylvania have since been extensively opened, and the price of coal greatly reduced, it will be obvious, on the least reflection, that this avenue, connecting with the tide water of the Hudson, affords a highly important competitor to more distant channels, and must do much in regulating the price of that article. The canal was made generally 20 feet wide on the bottom, 32 feet on the surface, (in some parts 36 feet,) and 4 feet depth of water. The locks are 76 feet long between the gates, and 9 feet wide. It was designed for boats of 30 tons. At the time it was projected, it was not supposed its annual business would exceed 150,000 tons. In consequence of the increasing demand for coal, and the importance of improving the means and the economy of transit, the company turned their attention, in 1842, to the subject of enlarging their canal. The plan submitted by R. F. Lord, Esq., their engineer, was to raise the water one foot, making the canal 5 feet deep instead of 4 feet. By this proceeding, its top width would be increased from 32 feet to 35 or 36 feet, according to the slope of the banks. The cross section of the water-way of the original canal was 104 square feet; and as enlarged, 137½ to 140 square feet, according to the slope. Taking 139 as the average, the enlarged section is about 36 per cent greater than the original section. This plan of enlargement was commenced in the latter part of the season of 1842. In the spring of 1843, the work had progressed so far, that they began to give the canal increased depth of water. This course was proceeded in by a gradual process, continuing through the season, but not reaching the full plan of improvement during that year. From this partial condition of the alteration, the boats increased their average tonnage from 31 tons to 35 tons, in the year 1843. The quantity of coal brought down the canal that season, (1843,) was 227,605 tons. At the opening of navigation, in 1844, owing to the unsettled condition of the new work, and the effect of frost on recently raised banks, the water was not put on the full height to which it had been carried the fall previous. As the season advanced, the water was gradually raised; and, in autumn, of that year, was brought to the full depth of 5 feet. There were three classes of boats used for navigating the canal that season (1844):—First, the old boats, without alteration; second, the old boats, raised, so as to give them increased draft of water; and, third, new boats, built for the enlargement.

The average tonnage of the 1st class (for 1844) has been	36 $\frac{7}{10}$ tons.
“ “ 2d “ “	39 $\frac{2}{10}$
“ “ 3d “ “	42 $\frac{13}{10}$
The average for all the boats has been.....	40 $\frac{9}{10}$

The total quantity of coal brought down the past season was..... 251,000 tons.

The following will show the influence of this improvement on the price of freight:—

The price per ton, in 1842, before the improvement was brought into use, was..... \$1 34

The price, in 1844, the improvement fully in use only the latter part of the season,..... 0 97

This success has induced the company to decide on a further enlargement of their work. The new boats, of which 135 were in use during the autumn, when the full depth of water was enjoyed, carried 45 tons, and upwards. The engineer has informed me, that these boats, during the time the water was full height, were navigated by the same power that had always been employed on the old boats, previous to the enlargement, to carry an average of 31 tons—that is, by one horse. They have a regulation on this canal, by which boats that perform their trips in nine days are paid a higher price per ton than when a longer time is taken. This rule has long been established, and the object is to maintain greater regularity in the delivery of coal. The boatmen, therefore, have an inducement to use all diligence in navigating their boats.

The new boats, with 45 tons, on the completed improvement, have made their trips quite as easily within the time as on the old navigation, with 31 tons; and hence it is estimated, the cost of transportation will be reduced from \$1 34, in 1842, to 90 cents, in 1845. Further, the saving in the price of freight, in the years 1843 and 1844, has more than re-imburshed the expense of the enlargement.

This experiment, which appears to have been very carefully observed, shows that an enlargement of the section of the canal of 36 per cent, has increased the capacity of boats navigating it 45 per cent, and this without at all increasing the cost of traction, or the hands to manage the boats. Comparing the price of transportation, that on the enlarged canal, is 67 per cent of the cost on the old canal. Here we see that a saving of one-third the expense of transportation has been effected on a canal, by enlarging its sectional area 36 per cent.

This canal, as enlarged, has not the sectional area required for the most favorable traction of a boat of 45 tons, and, consequently, more tractive power is required, than would be necessary if it was the most favorable section; but, notwithstanding the transportation derives great advantage from the measure of improvement, the boats for this canal, from their form and size, do not require the same relative section for 45 tons, as they do for 31 tons.

In the calculations of the expense of transportation before alluded to for the Erie canal, the relation of the sectional areas of the original form to that of the proposed 7 feet canal, are as 1 to 2.94; or, the enlarged canal is nearly 200 per cent greater area than the original size. This measure of enlargement was to give the most favorable traction, or one-half the cost per ton on the old canal. It was regarded as important to an economical transportation, with large boats, in a crowded and promiscuous trade, that the section of canal should be liberal, not only to favor their traction, but to allow adequate freedom in their movement in passing each other, and more fully to feel their rudders. It is obvious, a boat navigating a comparatively shallow and narrow canal will not obey its rudder as readily, or be as easily managed, as on a broad and deep channel.

The experience on the Delaware and Hudson canal, has shown that an enlargement of 36 per cent, has reduced the cost of transportation 33 per cent; we are, therefore, led to the conclusion, that an enlargement of the Erie canal of 200 per cent, will reduce the cost of transportation, at least, 50 per cent. Boats for the large canal would be advantageously towed on the Hudson, saving all the delay, expenses of



transshipment and consequent breakage, and one set of agencies, which it is believed would save full 50 per cent of Hudson river charges, and the delay incidental to transshipment. The tolls on the canal are, probably, nearly equal (taking the general average) to the cost of transportation at this time; the saving, therefore, of 50 per cent on the transportation, would be equal to, at least, 25 per cent of the total cost of toll and transportation. That this reduction would materially increase the trade, is obvious on the least reflection. That this reduction will be effected by the completion of the enlargement, can no longer admit a reasonable doubt.

In 1835, an estimate was made, under the direction of the canal commissioners, by four engineers, each taking a certain section of the proposed improvement. The fact, that this estimate falls very much below the cost of the work, so far as it has progressed, has been severely animadverted upon, and calls for some explanation of the discrepancy. I made the estimate for the section commencing at Albany, and extending 57 miles west. The principal object was to obtain an approximate estimate of different dimensions of enlargement. From two to three months was all the time given to make this examination, prepare plans and calculations of quantities and cost. No great accuracy could be expected from the limited time given. The aggregate of this estimate was about \$12,500,000, and the damages for land would have increased it to, probably, about \$14,000,000.

So far as I was concerned, this estimate was based on the following considerations, which have not been observed, so far, in the construction of the work—to wit:—

1st. The work was to be prosecuted no faster than the surplus tolls would afford funds. Whereas, it has been prosecuted, much more rapidly, by additional funds, obtained by loans to a large amount, at a time when prices for labor and materials were high, and still further enhanced, by putting a large amount under contract, within a short time.

2d. Only one set of locks was contemplated by the estimate; whereas double locks, of a very expensive character, have been constructed in numerous cases. I do not contend that it was inexpedient to construct double locks; but the estimate should have the benefit of the additional set.

3d. The plan of work, embracing mechanical structures, was contemplated in the estimate, (so far as I was concerned,) to be plain and substantial; having regard to adequate strength and permanency, the convenience of the navigation, and proper symmetry in design; whereas, a very expensive mode, in executing a large portion of the work, not necessary for strength and permanency, has, to a great extent, prevailed. It is due to myself, to say that I earnestly remonstrated against this, in the outset; urging that it was unnecessary, and would eventually jeopard the success of the enterprise. In this, I was supported by commissioner, Bouck, who has, in all my intercourse, manifested a deep interest in the success of the improvement. There were items of work, not embraced in the original canal, that have been added to the plan of enlargement, which were not decided on at the time of the estimate. I have no doubt some, and, perhaps, most of these will be beneficial to the improvement.

The enlargement proceeded to the close of 1841, when it was arrested in consequence of financial embarrassments. Since that time, a very limited amount of work has been done. The total expenditure, thus far,

for work, damages for land, &c., has been about \$13,000,000. The length of enlarged canal in use last season was near 36 miles, and 17 miles are to be put in use next spring, making 53 miles of canal in use and ready for use, and 228 structures. There are 40 structures completed, but not in use, not being connected, in consequence of other work unfinished. There are 177 structures in an advanced state—two-thirds done. It may be observed, that the more expensive parts, such as heavy sections of canal, large aqueducts, of the first and second classes, and locks, are generally either completed, or in a high state of advancement. This accounts for the fact that, although only a small portion of the improvement is in use, more than half the expense has been incurred, leaving about \$11,000,000, (by the revised estimate of the canal commissioners, made in 1839,) to complete it on the expensive plan on which the work has been commenced. Taking into consideration, the present, or a fair price for labor and materials—an economical revision of the plans of work remaining to be done—(I mean such a revision as is compatible with the present dimensions of the enlarged canal, and will secure all necessary permanence and convenience to the navigation)—and a prosecution of the work at a rate of progress that will not enhance prices, there can be hardly a doubt, the remaining part of the enlargement may be completed for a much less sum than the above balance.

From the accumulation of deposit in the canal, and causes before alluded to, the average tonnage on down freight was reduced from 39 tons, in 1835, to 30 tons, in 1838. In consequence of this depression in the tonnage of boats, the canal commissioners gave greater attention to the repairs of the canal. They found the bottom in many places much filled with mud, sand and gravel, which, in fact, had been gradually accumulating, and, probably, never thoroughly cleaned out since the first introduction of the water. It is one of the objects of the enlargement, by raising the banks, and at some places the levels, and, instead of dams, constructing culverts and aqueducts, to turn land floods and their sediment under the canal, and thus, to a great extent, relieve the canal from this impediment.

By proceeding with a more thorough system of cleaning out the bottom, and raising the banks, the average tonnage was gradually increased, and, in 1841, it had reached 36 tons. At this time, but little of the new work had been brought into use. In 1842, a portion of the new work, mostly between Albany and Schenectady, was brought into use at places where the old work was always embarrassing to the navigation. As the enlargement was now suspended, the commissioners made more vigorous efforts to clean out the bottom, and raise the banks; which, with the new canal in use, so improved the navigation, that, in 1844, the average down tonnage of boats was about 60 tons, or double what it was in 1838. Other circumstances contributed to this result. The boats were constructed more full in their bearing, and a greater portion devoted exclusively to freight.

Notwithstanding this increase of tonnage, there were 257 more lock-ages in 1844 than in 1838. The down freight, in 1838, was 419,249 tons, and, in 1844, 871,537 tons. Consequently, all the efforts to improve the canal, and which have doubled its capacity, have only kept pace with the increasing trade. The tonnage of 1838 was a trifle greater than that of 1836; and, as the time from 1838 to 1844 may be too limited

to present a fair statement of increase, I propose to take 1834, when the trade had no special cause to affect its magnitude.

I have not the means of ascertaining the tonnage of 1834, except by comparing the tolls, which afford a sufficient approximation. The tolls of 1844 were 85 per cent greater than in 1834—a period of ten years. During this time there has been some reduction of tolls, the extent of which I cannot now state, but probably such as would show the tonnage to have increased nearly, if not quite, 100 per cent. It will be observed, this increase has taken place since the time when the canal was so fully occupied, that further capacity was required. In my letter to commissioner Bouck, before referred to, I gave it as my opinion, that the tonnage would be doubled in ten years, and urged this as a reason for adopting a liberal scale for the contemplated enlargement.

I have not noticed the return, or up freight, for the reason that, it being much less in tonnage than the down freight, the latter only is important in a calculation of capacity. The average price of freight on the canal may be taken at something above the charge of tolls; or the total charge of freight and tolls, at something over double the tolls. The total amount of tolls on the Erie canal, for the navigable year of 1844, was \$2,190,147. The transportation may be assumed at \$2,400,000, but say \$2,200,000. If the enlarged work, when completed, will effect a reduction of half this sum, as it is believed has been conclusively shown, the annual saving on last year's trade, without considering the way trade, would be \$1,100,000. This trade must increase for many years to come. For several years it has been contended, by the opponents of this enterprise, that the freight furnished by the forest would fall off as rapidly as that of agriculture, &c., would increase; and, therefore, no material increase of tonnage would occur. This subject was very ably discussed last winter, in the report of H. Seymour, Esq., chairman of the Canal Committee, in the assembly. The document is one of great interest, in which the canal policy of this state is treated in a manly and able manner. By a statement in a late number of the *Merchants' Magazine*, it appears the tonnage from the forest, arriving at tide water, from all the canals, in 1844, was 32 per cent over that of 1843, and that the total tonnage arriving at tide water, in 1844, was 30.6 per cent greater than that of 1843, showing the increase from the forest to have been greater than from all other sources, that is, the ratio of increase has been greater. It thus appears, Mr. Seymour's views, that the tonnage would continue to increase for a long time to come, have been well sustained by the facts thus far. There can be no doubt that, if adequate provision is made to accommodate it, the trade of this canal will go on increasing for many years; and, if we allow twenty years for it to double the last year's business, no time should be lost in devising a system of proceeding that will bring the improvement into complete operation in the course of about eight years. When it is completed from Albany to Syracuse, the trade will derive great benefit; and, by the time it is wholly in operation, say about eight years from this time, the annual saving in transportation will not be less than \$1,500,000. The improvement will be a self-producing cause of increasing trade. That which now will not bear charges of transportation, will enter its regular business. The area of country that will concentrate in this channel, will be enlarged in proportion to the increased facilities and economy secured for its accommodation.

In the report of the canal commissioners, of January, 1844, where, speaking of the lockages in 1843, they remark—"The rapidly increasing transportation of property on this canal, from those states bordering on the western lakes, will, undoubtedly, greatly add to the number of lockages." In their recent report, (January, 1845,) they remark—"The great increase of business on the canals has materially added to the number of lockages." Again, page 10—"If the business on the canals continues to increase, it will soon be indispensable to its accommodation to have double locks brought into use at all places from Albany to Syracuse."

If time permitted, I would show, from the reports of canal commissioners, the failing and deteriorating condition of many of the old structures and works on the Erie canal, and the difficulty, from its small section at several places, in passing a sufficient supply of lockage water, during the seasons of greatest pressure in its business. Much more could be done, if the business was equally spread through the season of navigation, but such an arrangement is impracticable. The western lakes being closed in the winter, the products accumulated at their ports during the suspended navigation, will, at the opening of spring, rush to market, and supplies from the Atlantic market be immediately called for. Then again, after harvest, there will be an accumulated business in the fall trade.

In relation to the value of the enlarged canal, even for boats used on, and limited by the dimensions of the original work, the canal commissioners, in their report of January, 1844, remark—"those portions of the enlargement of the Erie canal, which are in use between Albany and Syracuse, and the construction of double locks on the enlarged plan at points most liable to detention and delay, have added greatly to the capacity of the canal, and to the certainty, safety, and expedition of transportation."

In their late report, (January, 1845,) the commissioners, in speaking of a section of about six miles of enlarged canal, embracing Schoharie creek, to be brought into use next spring, remark—"By this improvement the heavy annual expenses, to which the state has been heretofore subjected, in dredging the channels of the creeks, and in maintaining dams and towing path bridges, will be avoided; the injurious and vexatious delays, to which boats have been liable at the old locks, prevented, and inestimable benefits to the interest of all concerned in the navigation of the canal, secured." The same report, when speaking of eleven miles of enlarged canal, also to be brought into use next spring, known as the Jordan level, the commissioners remark—"The canal will receive an additional supply of water from the Nine Mile Creek feeder; the expense of two lock tenders, and the repair of two locks and two aqueducts, that are in a dilapidated condition, will be saved, and the hazard of interruption to the navigation will be greatly diminished."

The same report, in speaking of the locks near the upper Mohawk aqueduct, the commissioners remark: "During the busy portions of the season of navigation, these locks are in constant employment, and require the uninterrupted attendance of the lock tenders."

It therefore appears that, in regard to the convenience and economy of navigation—of repairs of canal, and also in regard to the increasing amount of the trade—the canal commissioners are deeply impressed with the usefulness of this improvement: and the friends of the enterprise do not appear to have over estimated its necessity and importance.



Several valuable and highly interesting public documents have at different times been published, which present many important particulars in relation to the subject under consideration. But the limited range of a single article, does not allow them to be further discussed.

The unproductiveness of the lateral canals has been much dwelt upon by the opponents of the enlargement of the Erie canal. The total length of the lateral canals is about equal to that of the Erie canal; while the tolls, on the latter, for the last season, were about 90 per cent of the aggregate tolls of all the state canals. There can be no doubt, however, that the tolls on the Erie canal, have been increased by the trade brought to it by the lateral canals; but to what extent I am not able to say. That money has been, to a greater or less extent, unwisely expended on the lateral canals, there can be no doubt. But is this a sufficient reason why we should neglect the proverbially great avenue of internal commerce? an avenue passing through the central and most fertile portion of our own state, connecting with internal lakes, rivers, and artificial canals, spreading its ramifications and usefulness to the great mass of our citizens; and uniting the most extensive inland lake navigation in the world, with one of the best river navigations! Certainly no careful, intelligent and candid examination of the subject will call for an abandonment of the enterprise, and leave its unfinished structures to point out to future times our incapacity to appreciate its importance.

To the city of New York, I regard the completion of the enlargement of the Erie canal, as a question of great importance. She has a deep interest in whatever tends to reduce the expense of interior transportation. She has already felt, in her accumulated millions, the effect of this canal as originally constructed. If I should undertake to estimate the benefits that have already flowed to the citizens of this state, in the advancement of their agriculture, manufactures and commerce, the amount would appear incredible. But the time has arrived when increased facilities are demanded for the accommodation of the increased, and increasing trade. Great efforts are making to divert as much of this trade to other ports as is practicable. And while the citizens in the interior have a common interest with New York, in reducing the cost of transportation, and possess the means for doing so, is it consistent with an intelligent spirit of enterprise, and regard for the public interest, to fold our hands and remain idle?

Without questioning the policy that led to a suspension of the enlargement in 1842, there can be no question the canal finances are *now* in a condition that admits of a safe and sufficient system, gradual in its commencement, and looking to the completion of the enterprise at some eight years from this time, without increasing the state debt. There can be no reasonable doubt, the tolls at the end of six or eight years will amount to \$3,000,000 per annum. The new work put in complete operation, the expense of repairs would be reduced probably to between \$300,000 and \$400,000; and a surplus, applicable to the debt, of \$2,600,000 per annum, may be calculated upon at that time with confidence.

It has been urged that taxes had to be laid to support the canals, and the people will not submit to it. Few persons understand this process of financiering, which has thrown undeserved discredit upon the state canals. By laws of the state, \$200,000 of canal tolls have been, and are, annually appropriated to the general fund; and the salt revenues, which

have been created, and are sustained by the canals, amounting annually to about \$100,000, have the same direction. Now the process is simply to take a portion of the canal revenues, appropriate them to the general fund, and then make up a part of the deficiency to the canal revenues from taxes; to which should simply have been paid over in the first instance, to the general fund, and the canals left with their own revenues.

But it is said we must pay the canal debt, before further progress can be made in the completion of the work. By the recent report of the comptroller of the state, it appears the total canal debt is \$20,713,905; the annual interest \$1,126,397, and that he has on hand applicable to this debt, \$2,691,225. This will reduce the debt to \$18,022,680, on which the annual interest will be about \$950,000. Add to this the annual cost of maintaining the canals, (which the last two years averaged \$424,000,) for the last year was \$464,334, and taking the whole sum of interest and repairs at the rate of last year, from the tolls of the last navigable year, \$2,446,375, and there is a balance of \$1,032,041; or, over \$1,000,000 of surplus canal revenue. This surplus some propose to appropriate, after deducting what is carried to the general fund, to the extinguishment of the canal debt; and this improvement, (after more than half the expenditure necessary to complete it on the expensive plan that has been pursued,) is to be suspended from fifteen to twenty years, until this debt is paid! Is it reasonable that the present generation shall pay the whole of this debt, with the improvement so far advanced, but unfinished; and the trade from which this great surplus revenue is derived, be allowed to suffer from inconvenient and inadequate accommodation during this long term? Can it be that such a proposition will meet the approbation of the calm and practical good sense of an intelligent people?

If the measure was one of doubtful usefulness, and there was reasonable ground to apprehend it would bring a burden upon the people, we should pause, until the questions of usefulness and finance were well settled. It is not to be doubted that inexpedient expenditures have been made; but they are past, and can only be useful as beacons to guide us in the future. There is no reason, however, that, because some have failed, that *that* which is proverbially good should be neglected. The agriculturist would not be deemed wise, who, having lost his crop of oats, should therefore neglect to cultivate his corn.

It must be borne in mind that the Erie canal, not only bears the deficiencies of the unproductive laterals, but also an expenditure on its own unfinished, (consequently mainly unproductive,) enlargement, and on unfinished laterals, of together some \$15,000,000. It has proved itself capable of bearing all these, and has acquired under them so much vigor that it is now proposed to add to it the unpaying railroad debt of near \$4,000,000. This is not all; for it is already proposed, as it increases in strength, not to complete its unfinished work, but to add other expenses of government. Now, a work that is expected to bear such burdens, is certainly entitled, on the score of revenue, to have the best care that circumstances will permit. It would, however, be doing it injustice, to limit its usefulness, by the measure of its tolls. The benefits conferred on the general interest of the state, to agriculture, arts and commerce, and the general socializing influence produced by easy intercommunication, far exceed the value of its tolls.

In the present condition of the canal finances, there can be no difficulty

in proceeding with the enlargement of the Erie canal, on a scale that will annually bring more or less into use, and thereby improve the present navigation; and in a few years the whole may be completed, when its enhanced revenues will rapidly extinguish the debt; the holders of which will think themselves paid too soon.

I am aware that some persons are of the opinion that it is better to neglect the Erie canal, and depend on railroads to provide for the increasing trade. When it is considered that, on the completion of the enlarged Erie canal, a barrel of flour may be carried, exclusive of tolls, from Buffalo to New York for 15 cents, it will hardly be contended that railroads, judging from general experience in general trade, would be able to compete, in heavy freight, with the canal. To add present canal tolls would raise the cost to about 48 cents. For the promiscuous trade of the country, a canal boat, loaded at the canal port, and proceeding *without change of cargo to this city*, the great mart for the interior, has peculiar advantages. But it is not necessary to discuss this subject, for the avenue under consideration is of sufficient importance to require both railroad and canal of large capacity to meet its varied, great, and growing wants.

When it is considered that the annual tonnage of the Erie canal, that arrives at, and departs from tide water, is about equal to all the tonnage that enters and clears from the port of New York, I am persuaded my fellow citizens will agree with me, in regarding the enlargement of the canal, as a work in which she has a deep interest. It is indeed the great internal pillar in her commercial fabric. The interior of the state is no less interested than the city; it is a common interest, to economize the transit of property and serve the general interest of trade.

If the ample accommodation that is within our reach, is given to this trade, we may reasonably expect, at no great lapse of time after the work shall have been completed, its enhanced magnitude will be such, as to admit a reduction of tolls on such articles as are now able to bear only a moderate participation in the general trade, and ultimately a general reduction, and still leave abundant revenues to provide for its debt, and furnish means for other objects. Thus the trade would not only have the benefit of great economy in transportation, but also a reduction of tolls, which could not fail to produce incalculable advantages.

The subject is regarded as one of great general interest, and commends itself to the dispassionate consideration of an intelligent community. It should be viewed as above all partisan questions of policy, and treated as a matter in which the mass of our citizens has a common interest.

If we do not forget the inestimable benefits conferred on our own and other states, by the original work, we shall not fail to perceive the importance of now completing its enlargement, required to afford adequate provision for its greatly accumulated and increasing trade.

It will be perceived that no measures are here proposed to increase the canal debt, or to impair the ability of the canal revenues, to meet punctually the interest on the canal debt, and expenditures for repairs. It is merely to appropriate the canal revenues to canal purposes, and, after the interest on the debt, and expense of repairs are paid, the annual surplus to be appropriated to complete the enlargement of the Erie canal. And if it should be regarded as important to continue the present appropriation of \$200,000 from canal tolls to the general fund, there will still be left,

on a calculation of tolls for the last navigable year, over \$800,000 per annum to proceed with the work of enlargement.

A single remark on the question of canals as compared with railroads. It is very often observed that one, or the other, is the best mode to effect cheap transportation. I consider, however, that this question depends on circumstances. In the transportation of passengers and light freight, and such as requires winter transportation, a railroad possesses decided advantages; while for heavy freight, a large promiscuous trade, and more or less connected with natural navigation, a canal may be highly beneficial, even with a successful railroad by its side. With such a canal as the Erie, already in operation, possessing within itself the means of completing its own enlargement, so as to render it one of the most perfect artificial navigations in the world, it certainly would be unwise to abandon it, for any superiority that has yet been demonstrated in railroad transportation: far better for all interested in cheap carriage, to have both canal and railroad.

There are situations where a canal would be impracticable, and yet a railroad may be a highly successful improvement.

It is not for the public interest that these improvements should be compared by a partisan view; but that each should be considered with reference to its adaptation to the local circumstances and trade that is to be accommodated.

J. B. J.

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#### ART. IV.—THE UNITED STATES EXPLORING EXPEDITION.\*

It is remarkable that the United States, although ranking as the second commercial power, has never until the date of the present expedition, contributed her quota as a nation to the advancement of geographical or physical science, except within the limits of her own sovereignty. It is true, that much has been accomplished by the individual enterprise of her citizens, and the record of their discoveries in the great Southern ocean, show most clearly that her deficiency has arisen rather from the peculiar character of her institutions, than from any want of zeal or daring on the part of her citizens, no better proof of this can be needed than is afforded by the narrative now before us.

When the expedition sailed, we were led to expect much from it; but during its progress, the accounts that appeared in the public prints induced a fear that the first voyage of discovery, undertaken under the auspices of our government, would prove a complete failure, and be productive of no beneficial results to the country or to science. A perusal of the narrative has fully removed these fears, and we hasten to lay before our readers a brief notice of such portions of this magnificent work as more particularly appertain to our department of literature.

It will probably be recollected by most of our readers that by an act of Congress, 18th May, 1836, an expedition was authorised to be fitted out for the purpose of exploring the Southern ocean, having special re-

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\* Narrative of the United States Exploring Expedition, during the years 1838, 1839, 1840, 1841, 1842. By Charles Wilkes, U. S. N. Commander of the Expedition, member of the American Philosophical Society, &c. In five volumes and an atlas. Philadelphia: Lea & Blanchard. 1845.



ference to the important interests of our commerce embarked in the whale fisheries and other adventures in that region of the world. Owing to causes, which we feel no desire to investigate, everything connected with this expedition was in confusion, and a general belief existed that it would be abandoned, when in March, 1838, Capt. Wilkes was appointed to the command, and instructed to organize it anew; this he accomplished in a short time, so that in August, of the same year, he was ready to depart, and the squadron under his command, consisting of the sloop of war Vincennes and Peacock, ship Relief, brig Porpoise, and tenders Sea Gull and Flying Fish, left Hampton Roads on the 18th. The five splendid volumes now before us, are a record of how much was accomplished, and of the danger and difficulties undergone in fulfilment of the duties which devolved on the gallant officers and seamen attached to the expedition.

As the primary object of the expedition was the promotion of the great interests of commerce and navigation, it was natural to expect that these volumes would contain much that would be of importance to the mercantile community, but we scarcely anticipated the ample store of information to be found in them, respecting the trade and resources of the countries visited by Capt. Wilkes. The chapter on currents and whaling grounds, is, of itself, a full return for all the expenses incurred by the government in the voyage.

As before stated, the squadron left the Chesapeake on the 18th August, 1838, for Rio Janeiro, via Madeira. Of this island we have an interesting account, and the following particulars of the wine trade are deserving of notice.

"Wine is the staple commodity; the produce during 1837 was 14,150 pipes. The export the year previous to our visit amounted to 8,435 pipes, of which about 3,800 pipes, valued at \$793,000, went to the United States. The imports amounted to \$105,000 in staves, rice and oil. The 5,700 that remain, includes that shipped to Europe, the home consumption, and what is stored for refining. The inhabitants of Madeira are much alive and justly jealous of the reputation of their wines, which are generally the engrossing subject of conversation. An amusing excitement existed during our visit. A London paper had asserted that foreign wine had frequently been introduced into Madeira, and afterwards exported as the genuine article, to the United States, in particular, and what gave new force to the story it was stated as a fact, that seventy pipes had lately been entered at an expense of \$1000, and manufactured. Everybody was up in arms. The commercial association of France had passed resolutions denouncing the publication in strong terms, as designed by interested persons to injure the reputation of the wine of Madeira. So strict are the laws to prevent frauds, that even genuine Madeira, after being once shipped, cannot be returned to the island."

After leaving Madeira they proceeded to the Cape de Verdes, searching on their way for the Maria rock, Bom Felix shoal and Bonetta rocks, but in vain; their reported positions were sailed over, and soundings taken, without any indications of a shoal being obtained. The same results ensued after leaving St. Jago, in the search for Patty's overforks, and Warburgh shoals, as well as the French shoal, Triton shoal, Bouvet's sandy shoal, and Krusenstein's volcano, all which *vigias*, or shoals, are laid down in the charts. They then bore away for Rio Janeiro, where they arrived on the 23d November. Capt. Wilkes observes on the passage of vessels from the United States to Rio:—

"Our observations would point out the necessity of dull sailing vessels not crossing the equator to the westward of  $20^{\circ}$  W. L., where the equatorial current begins to be felt; but vessels that sail well, may cross it as far as  $26^{\circ}$  W., particularly where the N. E. monsoons prevail in their full strength, and very much shorten their passage by such a course."

Among the variety of information on the condition and resources of Brazil, is a full account of the various races of negroes, brought there as slaves, demonstrating what has before been asserted by travellers, that they differ almost as much from each other, as they do from the whites. Our author states that, since the treaty with England, giving up the slave trade, large numbers of slaves are still smuggled in, by connivance with the authorities; the number annually imported, contrary to law, being estimated at 7 to 10,000; previous to this, about 50,000 were annually introduced, of which about one-third perished.

The national debt of Brazil, in 1838, was \$60,000,000, whilst the revenue was \$16,000,000, principally derived from duties, or imports and exports. The imports, at that time, were over \$20,000,000.

"The amount of exports is variously stated. Coffee is the great staple, and more than 160,000,000 pounds were exported in 1838. It is derived from the central provinces, and the exports of it have more than doubled in the last ten years. The exports of the southern provinces are mostly confined to hides and tallow; those of the northern, to sugar, cotton and tobacco. The trade with the United States has greatly increased. Within the last ten years, from one hundred and sixty to one hundred and seventy American vessels take and bring cargoes to and from the United States, and some foreign vessels are engaged in the same trade. The consumption of American flour, in Rio, and the neighboring country, has been, during the same year, about 120,000 barrels."

The expedition next proceeded to the Rio Nigro, and thence to Orange Harbor, in Terra del Fuego, where preparations were made for a cruise in the Antarctic ocean, during which they experienced very heavy weather, and obtained but few good results; accurate observations were, however, made of the positions and bearings of several islands, and some new ones discovered; and, on the 20th of April, 1839, they again left Orange Harbor for the Pacific, and arrived at Valparaiso on the 15th of May. We are now presented with a very full and interesting account of Chili, from which we learn that the commerce of Chili is rapidly increasing; the exports of copper from Truasco, Coquimbo, and Valparaiso, amount to 60,000 quintals per annum, and of the ore, principally to England, from 150 to 200,000 quintals; the silver exported amounts to 100,000 marks, of 8 ounces.

"There are 30,000 hides exported, principally from Valparaiso. From 5 to 600 quintals of wool are shipped annually from Concepcion. Very little silver is coined in the country, dollars being an article of merchandise, worth from 7 to 9 per cent, according to the supplies from Bolivia or Peru. From 800,000 to 1,000,000 silver dollars come annually from Cobija to Valparaiso, and are shipped thence to England."

The annual imports into Chili and Peru have averaged \$10,600,000, of which \$1,500,000 were from the United States; the returns from Chili are about \$6,200,000, of which copper is the largest item, amounting to \$2,000,000. The number of vessels employed in the trade is about two hundred and seventy, of which eighty are from the United States. In consequence of the favorable situation of Valparaiso, a large proportion of the supplies for Peru are landed there, and sent to their ultimate desti-

nation in coasting vessels. The foreign trade is principally carried on by the English, Americans and French, though, of late years, a good many German and Spanish vessels have been engaged in this commerce.

"The annual imports into Peru are combined so much with those of Chili, that it was deemed proper to include them under one head; those of Peru amount to about two-fifths of the whole of these imports, part go to Guayaquil; the Intermedios, or South Peru and Bolivia, take about \$1,000,000 from Chili and Peru. The returns from Peru are—dollars and bullion, \$4,500,000; bark, hides, &c., \$500,000.

"These countries offer a large market for our domestic cottons, and, if the prices can be maintained, the United States will supply the most of the coarser kinds used. I have it from the best authority, that the consumption of these goods is now double what it was five years ago, and it is still increasing."

It is evident, from the facts stated by Captain Wilkes, and those derived from other sources, that the Chili and Peru trade is of vast importance to the United States, as affording one of the best marts for her manufactures; but, in consequence of the disturbed state of those countries, and the miserable policy pursued by their rulers, commerce has been restricted, and their vast resources but partially developed; hence, the markets have been glutted with foreign goods, not so much from over-importation, as from a want of safe means of inland transportation; for it has constantly happened that, while in the seaports, goods have been sold at a ruinous sacrifice, enormous profits would have been obtained on them in the interior. Latterly, the trade has been more steady, and a more healthy state of things has prevailed, but much still remains to be done, before commerce can assume a regular form.

After remaining on the coast of South America until the middle of July, the expedition sailed for the islands in the Pacific; the first group of which they visited, was the Paumster group. These islands, in a commercial point of view, possess but little interest, the only article of importation furnished by them being the pearl oyster shell; these, as principally coming to our markets, viz., Tahiti, will be noticed hereafter.

The island of Tahiti—as it is now termed, the Otaheite of Cook—possesses unusual interest to every one who has read the voyages of that great navigator, and has traced, in the records of more modern voyages, the gradual change that has taken place in the manners and religion of its inhabitants. We would willingly make copious extracts from the narrative now before us, respecting this people, but feel constrained to restrict ourselves to its commercial history, which is, perhaps, the least interesting point connected with it, that would be selected, as its resources are very limited, most of its trade consisting in the supplies furnished to whale ships.

"An estimate has been made, that each of those vessels introduces goods to the amount of \$500, making a total of \$50,000; but I much question whether it can reach this extent; and if this amount be sold, it must include the profits; half the sum, I should think, was a large estimate. The few other vessels that visit the islands bring little cargo. If two arrive at the same time, they destroy each other's ventures, by glutting the markets."

As we mentioned above, the pearl shells procured among the Paumster group, are here disposed of. This trade was very productive for some years before the arrival of the expedition there, the quantity obtained in six years amounting to about 900 tons, valued at about \$50,000. The other articles of produce are sugar, cocoa nut oil, and arrow root; of the

first of which Tahiti and its dependent islands furnished 149 tons, valued at about \$11,000; of the oil, 185 tons, valued at about \$13,000: of arrow root, about 50 tons are produced, valued at about \$4,000. There are a few small vessels belonging to these islands, which trade to New South Wales, where they pay the same duties as British bottoms.

As a place of rendezvous for our whalers, being in the vicinity of their cruising grounds, and the ample supplies they are enabled to procure here, this island is invaluable. The vessels usually resort to the bay of Papieti, as it affords greater facilities for repairs and supplies than any other.

The next group visited was the Samown or Navigators islands, from whence Capt. Wilkes directed his course to Australia, where he arrived in November, and remained about a month, employed in preparing for an Antarctic cruise, and in observations on this strange country. These form the material for several highly interesting chapters, containing a mass of information on the colony, and its resources, of the most valuable kind.

The trade of Australia is already great, and is rapidly on the increase. Our author states:—

“The number of vessels that entered the port of Samown, in 1826, was 62, and their tonnage 17,178 tons; in 1840 they had increased to 704, and the tonnage, 178,958. The value of imports, in 1826, was 60,000 pounds; in 1840 it had increased to 3,014,189 pounds. That of exports, in 1826, was 106,600; in 1840 they amounted to 1,399,692 pounds. It will also be seen, that in the return of vessels built and registered in 1822, there were but 3, of only 163 tons; in 1840, 111 vessels, the amount of whose tonnage was 13,349 tons. But the most remarkable increase is in the exportation of wool, which, in 1822, was only 172,880 pounds, whilst in 1840 it amounted to 8,610,775 pounds.”

Nor does the wonderful increase of trade and production cease here, as is shown by the elaborate tables given in the appendix, which are too long for insertion in this place, but will amply repay a perusal; we shall merely notice in connexion with this subject, that it appears that the commerce with the United States is very limited, and mainly confined to a single house at Salem, which employs a few vessels in bringing flour, tobacco, &c., for which wool and hides are received as return cargoes.

We now come to the most interesting portion of the voyage, in a geographical point of view,—the discovery of a new continent, an honor, which must be conceded to Capt. Wilkes, whatever claims may be set up by other nations. A calm and dispassionate perusal of the chapters containing an account of the Antarctic cruise, will convince even the most prejudiced, that American seamen were the first to ascertain the existence of a large body of land to the south of Australia. It is well known to most of our readers that there were three expeditions of discovery in the Southern ocean, at much the same time, the American, another, English, under the command of Capt. Ross, and a third, French, commanded by Capt. D'Urville; those of France and America were of the same date, and that of England rather later.

The existence of a great body of land within the Antarctic circle does not admit of dispute; on this point all agree; the main difference of opinion is as to its extent, and the date of the discovery. Our limits forbid us to go into the subject at length, and restrict us to a mere notice of the events that occurred. Before entering on this, we cannot refrain from



giving the following paragraph, as showing under what disadvantages, and how unfitted were the vessels for undertaking this perilous enterprise.

"During our stay at Port Jackson, our vessels were much visited by all classes, and a great many inquiries made respecting our accommodations, &c. All seemed disappointed at not being able to see the same complete outfits in our vessels as they had seen described in the published accounts of those of the English expedition, commanded by Captain James Ross. They inquired whether we had compartments in our ships, to prevent us from sinking?—how we intended to keep ourselves warm?—what kind of anti-scorbutic we were to use?—and where were our great ice-saws? To all these questions, I was obliged to answer, to their great apparent surprise, that we had none, and to agree with them that we were unwise to attempt such service in ordinary cruising vessels; but we had been ordered to go, and that was enough—and go we should. This want of preparation certainly did not add to the character, for wisdom, of our government with this community; but they saw us all cheerful, young, and healthy, and gave us the character that I found our countrymen generally bear, of recklessness of life and limb."

Nor was this all. The vessels could not stow a year's provisions, even on short allowance, and fuel for a much shorter period; so that, had they been hemmed in by the ice, every man must have perished. To add to the evils, the *Peacock* was found to be almost unseaworthy; yet, in this unprepared condition, the squadron faced the dangers of a high southern latitude; and, in spite of every difficulty and privation, nobly performed the duties assigned to it, discovered a new continent, and returned in safety, owing to the skill and perseverance of its commanders, and the zeal and courage of their officers and men. Their reward has been, not the applause and gratitude of their country, but accusations and court-martials for the officers, and neglect of the brave men under their orders; but we trust, to use the emphatic words of the author, "that the applause of a grateful country has been only delayed, not wholly lost."

On the 26th of December, the expedition left Port Jackson, for the icy ocean of the south; and, on the 11th January, 1841, were stopped in latitude 64 deg. 11 min. S., longitude 164 deg. 30 min. E., by a barrier of ice. At this time, a faint appearance of land was perceptible; and the water had become of an olive-green color, as observed from the *Peacock*. On the 13th, Lt. Com. Ringgold, of the *Porpoise*, was also confident that land was seen. On the 16th, appearances of land were discovered from all three vessels, and the subsequent observations, made along an extent of 1,500 miles, leaves no doubt that an extensive continent exists at the South pole. A summary of these observations is best given in the words of the author:—

"Along the antarctic continent, for the whole distance explored, which is upwards of 1,500 miles, no open strait is found. The coast, where the ice permitted approach, was found enveloped with a perpendicular barrier, in some cases unbroken for fifty miles. If there was only a chain of islands, the outline of the ice would undoubtedly be of another form; and it is scarcely to be conceived that so long a chain should extend so nearly in the same parallel of latitude. The land has none of the abruptness of termination that the islands of high southern latitudes exhibit; and I am satisfied that it exists in one uninterrupted line of coast from Ringgold's Knoll, in the east, to Enderby's Land, in the west—that the coast (at longitude 95 deg. E.) trends to the north, and this will account for the icy barrier existing, with little alteration, where it was seen by Cook, in 1773. The great number of ice islands conclusively points out that there is some extensive nucleus, which retains them in their position; for I can see no reason why

the ice should not be disengaged from islands, if they were such, as happens in all other seas, in like latitudes. The formation of the coast is different from what would probably be found near islands, soundings being obtained in comparatively shoal water; and the color of the water also indicates that it is not like other southern lands, abrupt and precipitous. This cause is sufficient to retain the huge masses of ice, by their being attached by their lower surfaces, instead of their sides only."

A reference to the chart will show the extent of this continent explored, the perfect continuity of its coast, and the little probability of its being merely a chain of its lands; it will also afford evidence that the account which appeared in the province prints, that Captain Ross had sailed over the site of the supposed continent, was founded in error; an inspection of the map demonstrates that he coasted the portion of it which trends to the northward, as no land to the eastward of 160 deg. is claimed to have been discovered by Captain Wilkes. We would willingly pursue this subject, but we feel assured that most of our readers will investigate it for themselves, and that they will rise from the perusal of the narrative with a firm impression of its truthfulness, and will award the honor where it is justly due.

After this perilous cruise, in which the Peacock escaped by almost a miracle, the squadron returned to Sydney, whence they again sailed, on the 19th of March, for New Zealand, and arrived in the Bay of Islands on the 30th. We have already extended this notice so much further than we originally intended, that we are obliged to conclude with a few additional extracts from the other volumes, without attempting to follow the expedition in its visits to other places.

Among the information collected whilst visiting the Fejee group, there is a particular account of the Bicha de Mar trade, derived principally from Captain Eagleston, an experienced trader in those seas.

This article which finds a ready sale in the China market, is a dried worm or sheg, which is found in great numbers on the coral reefs of many of the islands in the great Southern ocean. There are many kinds of it, some of which are more highly esteemed than others; they are distinguished by shape and color; the most valuable kinds are found in water from one to two fathoms deep. After these worms are collected, they are thrown into bins to drain and purge, after which the larger kinds are slit along the belly, they are then placed in proper vessels without water, and boiled in their own liquor for about half an hour, drained, and then dried by a slow fire in a house prepared for the purpose; this last operation requires four or five days. In the process of drying, it loses two-thirds both in weight and bulk; and, when cured, resembles a smoked sausage. It is sold in the China or Manilla market by the picul, which brings from 15 to 25 dollars.

"To show the profits which arise from the trade in Bicha de Mar, I give the cost and returns of five cargoes, obtained by Captain Eagleston in the Fejee group:—

	Piculs.	Cost.	Sales
1st voyage.....	617	\$1,101	\$8,021
2 " .....	600	1,200	17,500
3 " .....	1,080	3,396	15,120
4 " .....	840	1,200	12,600
5 " .....	1,200	3,500	27,000

"A further profit also arises from the investment of the proceeds in Canton. Captain Eagleston also obtained 4,488 lbs. of tortoise shell, at a cost of \$5,700, which sold in the United States for \$29,050 net.

Although the outfit for this trade is small, the risk is so great that no insurance can be effected on the vessels; as, without an exercise of the greatest precaution, it is impossible to prevent the loss of the vessel and crew, as the natives are ever on the watch to destroy them, for the sake of plunder.

After leaving the Southern ocean, the expedition proceeded to Oregon, and a long time was spent in exploring the country and in surveying the harbors and rivers; the information given in the several chapters devoted to this territory are of much moment at this time, when its occupation has become an object of general attention in the United States. From the account of Captain Wilkes, it appears that the climate is genial and the soil good, but it seems to be better calculated for a grazing than for an agricultural country; one of the great drawbacks to its prosperity is the danger attending the navigation of the Columbia river; this, although greatly lessened by the excellent charts now presented, can never be entirely obviated, as it arises from cross tides which are constantly changing; added to which, they are so rapid that it is impossible to steer a vessel by the compass, or maintain her position, and no sailing directions can possibly embrace the various effects produced by them on a vessel. In connection with this is the singular fact peculiar to this navigation alone, that the safest time to enter is when wind and tide are adverse. In consequence of these difficulties and the want of pilots, the *Peacock* was unfortunately lost; however much this may be deplored, it is evident that no blame can be attached to Captain Hudson or his officers; they did all that science and skill could do in the circumstances under which they were placed, and when these are duly known and appreciated, it must be acknowledged, even by the most prejudicial, that praise, and not censure, is their due reward.

After the surveys of Oregon were accomplished, the squadron rendezvoused at San Francisco, in California, and sailed thence in October, 1841, for Manila, during which passage the many shoals and islands laid down in the charts were found not to exist. In January, 1842, the expedition arrived at Manila, of which, and the Philippine islands we have a full account; from here they pursued their way through the Indian archipelago to the United States, where they arrived in June, 1842.

We have still to notice what we consider as the most valuable portion of the work, and which of itself is an ample return for all the expense incurred by the nation in the prosecution of the undertaking; we allude to the chapter on currents and whaling grounds; as it establishes the important fact that the direction of the great currents of the ocean, by carrying with them the proper food of the whale, determines not only the resorts of those animals, but also the seasons at which they are to be found in each locality.

From the nature of this paper, it would be almost impossible to give a synopsis of it in any reasonable limits; we must therefore confine ourselves to stating that after giving an account of the various currents of the ocean, and showing the influence of these in sweeping with them the medusæ, which forms the principal food of the whale, our author goes on to prove that it is to this cause mainly, that the whale, and more especially the sperm whale, is a migratory animal. The principal whaling grounds are shown on the map annexed to this chapter, and it will be seen that they occupy, in most instances, the neutral, points or spaces, in

the ocean, where no current exists; in other words, the spots in which their food has been accumulated by the action of the envioning currents. Captain Wilkes next gives a particular account of the various whaling grounds, both for the sperm and the right whale, and points out the time of the year in which they most abound in each place, and finishes with some excellent observations and suggestions respecting this most important trade. We cannot to highly recommend the subject embraced in this chapter to the attention of the mercantile public, and more especially to that portion of it engaged in the whale trade.

We cannot conclude without giving our meed of praise to the manner in which these volumes have been got up, both as regards their typography and the numerous illustrations with which they are adorned; these are truly excellent, and may be cited as the best proof of the advanced state of the arts in the United States. The narrative itself is told in a clear and engaging manner, and is exceedingly rich in almost every topic that can gratify public curiosity.

#### ART. V.—CANAL COMMERCE OF OHIO.

THE Eighth Annual Report of the Board of Public Works of Ohio, made to the forty-third General Assembly of that state, at the close of the last year, has been printed.\* It forms a pamphlet of nearly one hundred pages, embracing a very minute account of the condition of the canals, and other public improvements, owned exclusively by the state. We shall endeavor to present as comprehensive a view of the commerce of the state as the data, chiefly furnished in the report, will permit. The complete public works of the state are as follows:—

Ohio canal, and appendages,.....	334
Miami and Warren county canals,.....	85
Extension of Miami canal, and appendages,.....	105
Wabash and Erie canal, and appendages,.....	91
Walhonding canal,.....	25
Hocking canal,.....	56
Muskingum Improvement,.....	91
<hr/>	
Total miles in length,.....	787

To which may be added the Northern Division of Miami Extension, to be completed at the opening of the spring navigation of 1845, 35 miles; making an aggregate of 822 miles of canals and slack-water. The other public works consist of the Western Reserve and Maumee road, 31 miles in length; one-third of the stock in the Pennsylvania and Ohio canal, and navigable branches, 87 miles; the White-Water canal, 25 miles; and the Milan canal and slack-water, 11 miles—an aggregate of 123 miles. The state also owns one-half the stock in twenty-six turnpike companies, embracing near 1,000 miles of M'Adamized road, traversing different sections of the state; and has recently subscribed to the capital

\* We are indebted to Leander Ransom, Esq., the President of the Board, for an early copy of the report.—[ED. MER. MAG.]



stock of several railroads, three of which are in progress, but not completed.

The board of public works, (consisting of Leander Ransom, William Spencer, and a Mr. Dickinson,) represent the business on the Ohio canal, near the 1st of July, 1844, as having largely increased over a corresponding period of 1843. The property of this canal, and indeed of all similar improvements, depends, in a great measure, on the quantity of the agricultural staples produced in their vicinity. Wheat, in fact, is the great and principal staple of Ohio; and, as this is materially increased or diminished in quantity, the revenues on the public works of the state are correspondingly affected, as well as the prominent interests of the people.

For a series of years, extending from 1835 to 1842, nearly the same quantity of wheat and flour was shipped from the district of country south of, and including Roscoe, that was shipped from the district north of that point; but, since 1842, the difference in favor of the northern district has greatly increased—amounting, in 1844, out of an aggregate shipment of 3,624,223 bushels, to over 1,100,000 bushels. There has been, as will be seen by the tables that follow, a very considerable increase in the quantity of pork shipped by the Ohio canal, the past year; exceeding, by over 30,000 barrels, the shipment of any previous year. The shipments of wool, it appears, have more than doubled any previous year; amounting, in the aggregate, to nearly 1,000,000 pounds.

The quantity of merchandise imported into Ohio, through this channel, in 1844, is considerably less than the previous year. Of the merchandise shipped at Cleveland, in 1844, amounting to 11,552,460 pounds, only 1,476,107 pounds were transported the whole distance for Portsmouth, and the Ohio river trade. This item of business has gradually decreased, since 1836; and it is stated by the board that, should the greater part be lost to the Ohio canal by the opening of the Miami, it will be of much less consequence than many have imagined.

We give, from the report, several tabular statements of the receipts or imports of merchandise, and New York salt; and the shipments or exports of the leading articles of produce from the state, by this canal. The following table exhibits the number of pounds of merchandise shipped by way of the Ohio canal, from Cleveland and Portsmouth; the aggregate shipments, and the proportion shipped from Cleveland, that arrived at Portsmouth:—

Years.	POUNDS OF MERCHANDISE SHIPPED VIA OHIO CANAL.			Prop. of mer. shipped from Cleveland, that arr. at P'tsm'h.
	From Cleveland.	From Portsmouth.	Aggregate.	
1833.....	9,896,440	.....	.....	.....
1834.....	10,127,613	.....	.....	.....
1835.....	14,839,950	5,868,605	20,708,555	.....
1836.....	13,384,959	7,220,003	20,604,962	5,193,784
1837.....	10,757,386	3,487,271	14,244,657	no returns.
1838.....	18,875,286	3,763,398	22,638,684	4,855,609
1839.....	19,125,282	7,085,735	26,211,017	4,460,355
1840.....	10,783,514	6,747,565	17,531,079	2,199,825
1841.....	15,164,747	5,773,929	20,938,676	4,166,871
1842.....	10,091,803	5,111,112	15,202,915	1,910,457
1843.....	13,250,758	5,886,587	19,137,345	2,880,112
1844.....	11,552,460	5,176,823	16,729,283	1,476,107

## Canal Commerce of Ohio.

Years.	BLS. PORK SHIPPED VIA OHIO CANAL.			LBS. LARD SHIPPED VIA OHIO CANAL.		
	Rec'd at Cleveland.	Rec'd at Portsm'th.	Aggregate.	Rec'd at Cleveland.	Rec'd at Portsm'th.	Aggregate.
1833,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
1834,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
1835,.....	.....	.....	.....	522,498	.....	.....
1836,.....	13,572	29,501	43,073	638,269	.....	.....
1837,.....	56,077	14,812	70,889	1,527,610	22,800	1,550,410
1838,.....	46,767	23,847	70,614	1,157,109	987,122	2,144,231
1839,.....	37,230	15,500	52,730	857,455	577,156	1,434,611
1840,.....	26,441	8,969	35,410	525,802	466,447	992,249
1841,.....	39,200	31,209	70,409	961,161	1,361,718	2,322,879
1842,.....	58,608	26,420	85,028	1,311,185	1,832,262	3,143,447
1843,.....	22,810	45,036	67,846	1,649,835	3,274,066	4,923,901
1844,.....	45,174	70,295	115,469	1,540,135	4,080,351	5,620,486

  

Years.	Pounds of Wool.			Bbls. of New York Salt.		
	Rec'd at Cleveland.	Rec'd at Portsm'th.	Aggregate.	From Cleveland.	Prop. arrived at Portsm'th.	min. coal rec'd at Clevel'd.
1833,.....	.....	.....	.....	28,447	.....	49,131
1834,.....	.....	.....	.....	36,803	.....	95,634
1835,.....	.....	.....	.....	46,139	8,438	50,473
1836,.....	.....	.....	.....	22,334	.....	84,124
1837,.....	.....	.....	.....	62,977	154	183,484
1838,.....	.....	.....	.....	63,465	998	73,292
1839,.....	32,176	49,926	82,102	109,916	17,029	134,881
1840,.....	48,222	15,127	63,349	77,254	12,390	172,206
1841,.....	107,805	25,548	133,353	59,773	1,440	478,370
1842,.....	199,803	24,857	224,660	49,556	339	466,844
1843,.....	391,138	38,541	429,679	44,310	183	387,834
1844,.....	848,878	129,916	978,794	73,325	454	540,305

The statements below, point out the several particulars:—

	1.	2.	3.	4.
1835,.....	387,232	132,319	1,048,827	1,154
1836,.....	463,821	167,431	1,300,976	3,399
1837,.....	549,141	203,691	1,567,596	735
1838,.....	1,229,012	287,465	2,666,337	2,368
1839,.....	1,515,820	264,887	2,840,255	1,100
1840,.....	2,155,407	505,461	4,682,712	.....
1841,.....	1,564,421	441,425	3,771,546	128,191
1842,.....	1,311,665	492,711	3,775,220	.....
1843,.....	813,536	577,369	3,700,381	605
1844,.....	976,551	494,909	3,447,046	487

NOTE.—Column 1 contains the number of bushels of wheat received at Cleveland, via Ohio canal; 2, number of barrels of flour received at Cleveland, via Ohio canal; 3, aggregate bushels of wheat, (reckoning a barrel of flour at five bushels,) received at Cleveland; 4, number of bushels of wheat received at Portsmouth, via Ohio canal.

	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.
1835,.....	25,745	129,879	1,178,706	577,258	601,448
1836,.....	32,629	166,544	1,467,520	629,670	837,850
1837,.....	13,546	68,465	1,636,061	823,025	813,036
1838,.....	13,898	71,858	2,738,195	1,392,827	1,345,368
1839,.....	6,932	35,760	3,876,015	1,538,418	1,337,597
1840,.....	34,134	170,670	4,853,382	2,147,981	2,705,401
1841,.....	62,441	440,396	4,211,942	1,918,890	2,293,052
1842,.....	18,688	93,440	3,868,660	1,808,718	2,059,942
1843,.....	28,736	144,285	3,844,666	1,440,217	2,404,449
1844,.....	35,338	177,177	3,624,223	1,220,029	2,404,194

NOTE.—Column 5 shows the number of barrels of flour received at Portsmouth; 6, aggregate bushels of wheat, (reckoning a barrel of flour five bushels,) received at Portsmouth; 7, grand aggregate of wheat shipped on the Ohio canal; 8, proportion of the foregoing grand aggregate shipped from a district south of, and including Roscoe, which also includes Zanesville wheat; 9, proportion shipped from the district north of Roscoe.

There has been received, by the collector on this canal, for tolls, fines, and water-rents, for the year ending November 15, 1844, as reported to the auditor of state,..... \$343,710 99

Amount thus reported last year,..... 324,259 81

Which shows an increase, for the year, of..... \$19,451 18

**WALHONDING CANAL.**—The amount received by the collector, for tolls, fines, and water-rents, on this work, for the year ending November 15, 1844, as reported to the auditor of state, is. \$1,976 78

The amount reported last year, was..... 610 32

Showing an increase, for the year, of..... \$1,366 46

The following are a portion of the leading articles shipped on this canal, since its completion :—

	1842.	1843.	1844.
Wheat,.....bush.	21,133	31,371	100,714
Flour,.....bbls.	3,554	6,595	10,060
Wool,.....lbs.	80	5,511	41,926

There has been paid on this canal, for the year ending November 15, 1844, by Leander Ransom, acting commissioner—

For superintendence and repairs,.....	\$1,200 00
For incidental expenses,.....	38 10

Total payments for the year,..... \$1,238 10

**HOCKING CANAL.**—The amount received by the collectors on this work, for tolls, fines, and water-rents, for the year ending November 15, 1844, as reported to the auditor of state, is..... \$5,286 44

Amount reported to him last year,..... 4,349 33

Showing an increase, for the year, of..... \$937 11

The deficiency in the crop of wheat in this valley, for the last three years, has had a very decided effect on the revenues of this work.

Annexed, is a comparative statement of some of the leading articles transported on this canal, since it was opened for navigation :—

	1840.	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.
Wheat,.....bush.	17,908	70,680	41,988	33,896	44,046
Flour,.....bbls.	274	6,163	13,662	20,464	11,960
Coal,.....bush.	....	31,981	80,329	127,853	118,004
Salt, (domestic),.....bbls.	....	4,186	6,777	10,279	9,416

**MUSKINGUM IMPROVEMENT.**—The amount received on this work by the collectors, for tolls, fines, and water-rents, for the year ending November 15, 1844, as reported to the auditor, is..... \$29,384 64

The amount thus reported last year, was..... 22,340 98

Showing an increase, for the year, of..... \$7,043 66

The following statement shows a portion of the leading articles transported on this improvement, since its completion :—

Shipped.	1840.	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.
Flour,.....bbls.	23,494	79,727	95,762	109,986	97,558
Salt,.....	1,705	13,672	8,774	11,773	19,042
Merchandise,*.....lbs.	.....	117,148	629,773	2,274,873	3,415,647

\* Received at Harmar, to pass up the Improvement.

**MIAMI CANAL.**—There has been a steady and gradual improvement in the business of this canal for the last three years, as will be shown by the annexed tabular statements of the receipts and shipments of a few of the most prominent staple articles of the country, and the merchandise shipped from, and received at two of the most important points :—

## SHIPPED FROM CINCINNATI, VIA THE CANAL.

	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.
Merchandise,.....lbs.	8,664,640	5,566,282	4,359,433	2,842,861	3,651,293	4,112,291
Iron and nails,.....	3,191,085	2,007,192	1,989,105	1,267,322	1,510,891	1,326,263
Castings,.....	1,449,788	496,143	no returns.	no returns.	no returns.	259,818
Pig iron,.....	659,371	308,142	400,201	386,568	419,427	817,643
Salt,.....bbls.	23,061	21,928	23,120	16,518	21,982	17,489

## RECEIVED AT CINCINNATI, VIA THE CANAL.

	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.
Flour,.....bbls.	138,120	165,762	118,577	74,204	127,093	133,544
Whiskey,.....	43,228	74,026	69,893	48,853	58,798	68,933
Pork, (including bulk pork and bacon,)....	67,736	31,795	33,255	36,208	25,252	47,154
Lard,.....lbs.	2,562,192	1,238,280	1,749,151	1,793,731	1,543,256	4,298,743
Wheat,.....bush.	no returns.	97,200	no returns.	5,283	5,983	13,272

## SHIPPED FROM DAYTON.

	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.
Flour,.....bbls.	54,999	79,862	68,379	37,032	73,188	87,207
Whiskey,.....	20,694	37,129	41,103	31,982	37,370	38,512
Pork, (including bulk pork and bacon,)....	8,879	5,379	10,018	11,295	11,648	14,539
Lard,.....lbs.	348,218	246,863	431,975	793,648	1,331,805	1,497,196
Wheat,.....bush.	4,698	840	1,191	155	298	2,685

## RECEIVED AT DAYTON.

	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.
Merchandise,.....lbs.	3,577,982	2,714,503	2,951,557	1,915,253	2,960,703	3,240,979
Pig iron,.....	147,059	no returns.	271,961	262,002	387,663	613,527
Castings,.....	766,860	no returns.	484,462	51,556	175,556	227,126
Iron and nails,.....	1,422,803	1,136,262	1,463,676	872,324	1,586,227	1,281,648
Salt,.....bbls.	no returns.	6,874	12,401	7,599	13,029	9,900

There has been received, for tolls, fines, and water rents, during the year ending November 15, 1844,..... \$77,844 25

There was received, during the year ending November 15, 1843,..... 68,640 09

Showing an increase, for the present year, of..... \$9,204 16

## ART. VI.—THE PRECIOUS METALS IN RUSSIA.

## THE SILVER MINING SYSTEM.

As the silver mines of Russia belong principally or almost wholly to the Emperor, a much more strict and rigorous system is pursued than where, as in the gold mines, the operations are left to private speculation.

Mr. Cottrell, in the course of his journey through Siberia, visited the emperor's silver-mines at Zouenogorsk. These mines consist of a series of subterranean caverns and long galleries. After a descent by a staircase upwards of three hundred feet deep, there occurs a gallery nine



hundred feet long, at the end of which is a water-wheel forty-two feet in diameter. This wheel, which is called the *preobraschenska*, is set to work by water brought along two canals excavated under ground; and the wheel itself is employed in lifting the silver-ore to the mouth of the mine. There are three other water-wheels in different parts of the mine, to facilitate the operations. Farther on, galleries are cut in every direction, leading to other shafts which have ceased to be worked.

These mines have been worked above a century, and are becoming almost exhausted, yielding only one part of silver from two hundred thousand parts of ore or rock. The workmen employed are serfs of the crown, who receive two rubles a month each, besides twelve puds of flour monthly, and house-rent free. The labor is not very excessive; the works are going on night and day, but three sets of workmen are employed, who relieve each other every eight hours, so that no one works above eight hours in the twenty-four. These mines have produced altogether during the period of rather more than a century that they have been crown property, about fifty thousand puds of silver, and seventeen hundred puds of gold, besides lead and other minerals of more or less value. At present the net produce is supposed to be worth about thirty thousand pounds sterling annually. The establishment is on a large scale, employing in the laboratory part alone about three hundred men; and the arrangements are planned with the most perfect regularity.

The mode of procuring silver from the crude substance which it contains is very different from that adopted in respect to gold, arising from the different state in which the two metals present themselves. The gold, as we stated in the former article, is found mixed up with grains of sand; and the mode of separating it is as follows:—On an inclined plane is placed a large wooden machine formed into different compartments, which are divided off by large iron combs. The first of these combs is coarse and open, as the material to pass through it is composed of pieces of quartz, stone, and sand, mixed together. Gold is generally found in quartz, as well as interspersed among the fragments; and to obtain the former, the quartz is bruised into moderate-sized pieces; but the time employed in so doing is often times greater than the value of the gold will repay, and therefore a good deal of the gold is voluntarily sacrificed. When the auriferous fragments are placed in one of the compartments, water is poured on the mass, and stirred about; the larger pieces of stone and much of the sand separate, while the heavier particles of gold fall to the bottom. Again and again is this washing performed, until all the sand is washed away, and the particles of gold are left nearly in a pure state. Of this mode of proceeding Mr. Cottrell says that it is very simple, though improvements in machinery would diminish the expense considerably; and what is of more consequence, from the want of workmen, enable them to increase their operations considerably, which must now be limited in proportion to the number of laborers they can obtain. We believe it would be a most profitable speculation for any clever inventor of machinery to go there to devise some new plan for clearing the materials from which the gold is extracted; and we are convinced he would make his fortune, as he might obtain a patent as easily as in this country. Not only are grains of gold found in this way mingled up with grains of sand and small pieces of stone, but occasionally pieces of six and seven pounds' weight are found; and on one occasion a mass weighing twenty four pounds was found almost wholly pure gold.

But with respect to silver, the mode of extraction is very different. It is found in a very hard rock of granite and porphyry. This rock is in the first place blasted by means of gunpowder: and the masses thus separated are broken up into small pieces with hammers. These smaller pieces are finally pounded by large hammers worked by machinery. The stone so pounded is put into furnaces for the separation of the metallic particles from the dross; this is done in immense smelting-houses, where a current of air is brought in from openings above to act the part of bellows, and create a draught in the furnace below; from whence the substance is poured out, cleared of its baser parts, but apparently not much more purified than when it was put in. The next process takes place in another furnace, where all the metallic particles, except the silver, are removed. Lastly, the nearly purified silver is put into a doubly-heated refining furnace, called a *treib-ofen*, together with pieces of lead, which, when melted, draw off with them any remaining drossy particles that may have escaped the previous processes; the silver, being the heavier metal, sinks to the bottom of the furnace, where it is left till cold. The silver when taken out cold from the furnace, is forwarded to the Mint at St. Petersburg, where a further process of refining takes place, to separate from it the particles of gold, which are always found with the silver in greater or lesser quantity.

In the neighborhood of Barnaoul, too, there are silver-mines belonging to the crown, the produce of which is sent to that town for smelting into large bars. Five hundred men are employed in the laboratory, which is a quarter of a verst square. One of the smelting-houses is three hundred feet long, and another nearly four hundred feet; they are very wide, and have several tiers of furnaces, which are supplied by a staircase behind, and provided with bellows of most gigantic dimensions. The annual produce is stated at about two hundred and fifty puds of silver, and a million of other metals, principally lead, copper, and iron. When the silver is sent to St. Petersburg, gold is extracted from it in proportion of about twenty-five puds of gold to a thousand puds of silver. There are one hundred and fifteen smelting ovens in all, twelve large open hearths, twelve refining-furnaces, five furnaces for separating the copper, and fourteen calcining-ovens. Four hundred thousand puds of coal for the refining-furnaces, and five million puds for other furnaces and ovens, are consumed annually.

The whole population of the province or government of Tomsk, amounting to a hundred thousand, are more or less employed in these various mining operations; for, besides the government officials, the miners, and washers, and the refiners, there are large bodies of persons constantly employed in transporting the ore to the works, and the metal from the works to different parts of the empire; so that a district in the heart of Siberia, which we are apt to picture to ourselves as being only the scene of horrors, exiles, privation, and labor in chains, is really a bustling and flourishing place.

In one or two districts farther west than those noticed above, there are other establishments for working mines of the precious as well as those of the inferior metals. At the flourishing town of Ekaterineburg, situated at the foot of the mountains which separate Siberia from Russia proper, are some very large establishments of this kind. Mr. Cottrell, in the course of a western journey of four thousand miles from Irkutsk to St. Petersburg, stopped a little while at this town, and thus speaks of

some of the operations in the neighborhood :—"There are two establishments belonging to individuals, which are really royal. The one between thirty and forty versts' distance belonging to M. Jacoblef, a gentleman of St. Petersburg, perhaps in absolute ready money, the wealthiest in the world : and the other three hundred versts off, which we had not time to visit, belonging to Mr. Demidof, who is known personally to many of our readers, and to many more by the fame of his colossal fortune, which is, however, far smaller than that of M. Jacoblef. The establishment of the latter gentleman is a complete town. He employs several thousand workmen, who are all well lodged and fed. There are for their use an hospital, church, various schools, a public dispensary, clergy, medical men, schoolmasters, and very good shops of every kind, all belonging to the proprietor, and kept up at his expense. The director of the whole has a salary of fifty thousand roubles a year ; and the appearance of comfort and good management that pervades it, is the best proof that the establishment is flourishing, not less as it regards the employer than the employed."

Gold-mines were part of the wealth here alluded to as possessed by M. Jacoblef ; but iron constitutes the principal element of his commercial greatness. The large works of M. Demidof relate to copper, platinum, and molachite. In 1840 he brought into the market a hundred puds of platinum—an enormous quantity, when the costly value of the metal is taken into account.

These details seem to show that there are agencies at work in the heart of the Russian empire, which will give to it a commercial character not to be despised, however small when compared with that of England. From the descriptions given by Mr. Cottrell, it appears that the population in these manufacturing towns, comprising a large section of the middle classes to which manufacturers are sure indirectly to give rise, is far in advance of the population of other towns in the empire, where the military and government officials are the only important persons in the place. He says that at Barnaul, the center of the busy smelting and refining district, there are more persons of literary acquirement than in all the rest of Siberia put together ; although Tobolsk, Irkutsk, Tomsk, &c., are the great government stations of the country, and have large numbers of officers and official agents.

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#### ART. VII.—ANNALS OF AMERICAN COMMERCE.—No. VII.

1801. *Commerce*.—The value of the exports of the United States was upwards of \$93,000,000. The tonnage of the United States was upwards of \$900,000. The amount of duties received by the United States was upwards of \$20,000,000 ; and of drawbacks paid by the states, toward \$8,000,000.

*Newspapers*.—There were now printed in the United States about 200 newspapers ; 17 of which were printed daily ; 7, three times a week ; 30, twice a week ; and 146 weekly.

1802. *Merino sheep*.—David Humphreys, late minister to the court of Madrid, imported into New England 100 of the Merino breed of sheep from Spain, to improve the breed of that useful animal in his own country. Some were also imported by R. R. Livingston.

*Sheet copper.*—The only manufactory of sheet copper in America was in Massachusetts.

*Louisiana.*—The value of the articles imported this year into the United States from Louisiana and the Floridas was \$1,006,214; the value of the articles exported to those places was above \$1,100,000.\*

1803. *Louisiana purchased by the United States.*—Louisiana was purchased of the French republic by the United States for \$15,000,000. On a representation to the Spanish government of the injury done to the United States by its officer, who had suspended the right of deposit at New Orleans, that right had been restored. The government, however, had been previously aware of the danger to which the public peace would be perpetually exposed, whilst so important a key to the commerce of the western country remained under a foreign power; and propositions had been authorized for obtaining, on fair conditions, the sovereignty of New Orleans, and of other possessions in that quarter. At this juncture, the government of France, perceiving the importance, to both nations, of such arrangements as might permanently promote their mutual peace, interests, and friendship, transferred to the United States, on certain conditions, the property and sovereignty of all Louisiana.

1804. *Genesee.*—The harbor of Genesee was made a port of entry.

1806. *Treaty with Great Britain—not ratified.*—A treaty of amity, commerce, and navigation, between Great Britain and the United States, was concluded at London, and signed by the American commissioners, Monroe and Pinckney; but it was not ratified by the American government.

*Lehigh coal.*—The Lehigh coal, obtained at the Mauch Chunk mountain, in Pennsylvania, which had for some time been only used by the blacksmiths and people in the immediate vicinity, was brought into notice. William Turnbull had an ark constructed at Lausanne, which brought down 200 or 300 bushels to Philadelphia.†

1808. *Slave trade abolished.*—The importation of Africans into the United States ceased by law on the 1st of January.

1810. *Rambouillet decree.*—The Rambouillet decree, alleged to be designed to retaliate the act of Congress which forbade French vessels to enter the ports of the United States, was issued by Bonaparte on the 23d of March. By this decree, all American vessels and cargoes, arriving in any of the ports of France, or of countries occupied by French troops, were ordered to be seized and condemned.

1811. *Sugar, wine, and oil made in Georgia.*—On the failure of cotton, the planters of Georgia turned their attention to sugar, wine, and oil. Mr. John Cooper, of St. Simon's made two pipes of excellent red

\* The estimate is \$1,124,710; of which \$170,110 worth only were domestic articles.

† Account of the discovery of anthracite coal on the Lehigh, by Thomas C. James. M. D., in *Memoirs Pennsylvania, Hist. Society*, i. 315. About the beginning of the year 1792, the "Lehigh Coal Mine Company" was formed, but without a charter of incorporation. This company "took up about 8 or 10,000 acres of, until then, unlocated land, including the Mauch Chunk mountain, but probably never worked the mine." In the trial of the coal, in 1806, it was "rejected as unmanageable;" and seems not to have been extensively used until about the year 1820. That year, the quantity of coal sent from Mauch Chunk to Philadelphia by water was 16,000 bushels. The quantity was very rapidly increased annually until 1825, when it was 546,236 bushels. In half the season, up to the 10th of August, 1826, there descended to Philadelphia 20,260 tons, equal to 567,280 bushels.



wine. Sweet and castor oil was made in great abundance on the sea coast of Georgia. Mr. Thomas Spalding, Mr. Cooper, and Mr. Grant, made parcels of Muscovado sugar. At Mr. Spalding's plantation, on Sapelo island, were made twenty-five pounds of good sugar, and the next year, eighty-four pounds.

*Trade with Asia.*—The sum of \$2,950,000 was shipped from the port of Philadelphia alone to Canton and Calcutta; supposed to be about one-half of the whole amount exported in this year from the United States to Asia.

*Hemp.*—Kentucky manufactures of hemp were valued at \$500,000.

1812. *Embargo law.*—A law was passed on the 3d of April, and signed by the president on the 4th, laying an embargo for 90 days. An act was soon after passed, to prohibit the exportation of specie, goods, wares, and merchandise, during the continuance of the embargo.

1813. *Cotton manufactories.*—In Baltimore and its vicinity there were now running about 9,000 spindles in the cotton manufactories; 1,500 or 2,000 more were to go into operation before the 1st of January.

1815. *Commercial convention.*—A convention to regulate the commerce between the territories of the United States and of his Britannic majesty was signed at London on the 3d of July. By the first article, a reciprocal liberty of commerce was agreed upon between the territories of the United States of America and all the territories of his Britannic majesty in Europe. This convention was ratified by the president on the 22d of December.

*Roads and canals.*—The president recalled the attention of Congress to the great importance of establishing throughout our country the roads and canals which can best be executed under the national authority; observing, that considerations of political economy are strengthened "by the political effects of these facilities for intercommunication, in bringing and binding more closely together the various parts of our extended confederacy." A water intercourse with Concord, in New Hampshire, was opened by way of the canals on the Merrimack. The first boat of the Merrimack Company arrived at the landing at Concord on the 23d of June.

1816. *Bank.*—A National Bank was established by act of Congress.

*Emigrations to the United States.*—In this and the preceding year there were great emigrations from England and Ireland to America. This year, 1,192 American and foreign vessels arrived at New York, bringing to that port alone 7,122 passengers.

1817. *New York canal.*—The first law, establishing a canal fund, and directing the canal to be commenced, was passed by the legislature of New York. The first excavation was begun on the 4th of July.

*Manufactures.*—The Delaware Society for promoting American manufactures was instituted at Wilmington. The Scotch loom, by Gilmore, was introduced at the Lyman factory, at North Providence.

1819. *Steam-ship.*—The first steam-ship sailed for Europe in May.

1822. *Steamboats on the Mississippi.*—In nine years, since the enrollment and license of the first steamboat employed in trade on the Mississippi, there were 89 boats enrolled at the port of New Orleans, forming, in the aggregate, a tonnage exceeding 18,000 tons. The Arkansas river had already been several times ascended by a steamboat, more than 500 miles from the Mississippi.

1823. *Canal navigation.*—On the 1st of October the whole line of the canal between Albany and Schenectady was prepared for the reception of water. On that part of the line there were two stupendous aqueducts, and 29 locks between Albany and Schenectady. On the 8th of the month, the first boats passed from the west and north, through the canal, into the tide waters of Hudson and Albany, amidst the celebration of thousands.

*Patterson.*—At Patterson, New Jersey, there were 3 extensive woollen factories, and 2 duck factories, supplying, in a great measure, the United States navy with canvass, and consuming upwards of 1 ton of flax per day; 3 factories making machinery, one of which is stated to be the most extensive and complete of any in the United States; 3 most extensive bleach greens; 2 brass and iron foundries; saw and grist mills; paper mill; rolling and slitting mill; nail factory, and a reed factory. There also were 4 places of public worship, 1 seminary, 6 schools, and 2 printing offices.

1824. *Sugar.*—The crop of sugar in Louisiana was estimated at 40,000 hogsheads.

1826. *Railroad.*—The Quincy railroad was opened on 7th October.

*Treaty with Central America.*—A general convention of peace, amity, commerce, and navigation, between the United States of America and the federation of the Centre of America, was ratified by the president, on the 28th of October.

*Canal.*—The line of the Blackstone canal from Worcester to Providence was marked out; about 500 hundred hands were actively engaged in its construction.

## MERCANTILE LAW DEPARTMENT.

### MERCANTILE LAW CASES.

#### COLLISION—THE ITINERANT.

In the British Admiralty Court, before Dr. Lushington, January 23, 1844. Dr. Lushington gave judgment in this case, which stood over from the 20th of December, 1843, to enable the Court and Trinity Masters to consider some nice nautical points. The learned judge now stated, with reference to the facts, that it might have been prudent for the *Itinerant*, which, in a foggy night, was under a press of sail, to have taken in her studding sails; but the Court was not of opinion that the collision was occasioned by the omission of the *Itinerant* so to do, and that the conduct of that vessel did not make her responsible for the damage sustained by the *Isabella*. The foundation of the judgment of the Court was, that where measures of prudence ought to be adopted, which must be very difficult, and almost impossible to define beforehand, and which particular measures must depend upon circumstances almost always varying—such as the state of the wind, the tide, and the number of vessels in the neighborhood—it was impossible to ascribe direct blame to any vessel, merely because she did not adopt a particular measure of precaution which could not be defined beforehand; and as the onus lay on the party charging the *Itinerant* to make out their case, and as they had not done so satisfactorily to the Court, that vessel was not held responsible. But it was not to be understood, (the learned judge added,) from this judgment, that in every case of this kind the Court would hold the party discharged from liability. In the present case, both the Court and the Trinity Masters released the *Itinerant*, more especially on the ground that they were all of opinion that the accident would have occurred, let what might have been done.

## BOTTOMRY BOND—THE SHIP LORD COCHRANE.

In the British Admiralty Court, June 21, 1844. This was a question as to the validity of a bottomry bond, given at Pernambuco, upon the ship, cargo, and freight. The vessel, which belonged to Mr. Benson, of Liverpool, left this country in the spring of 1839, destined to the island of Ascension, with government stores, and afterwards to go to Pernambuco for cargo. She landed the stores at Ascension, disposed of the remainder of her cargo at Pernambuco, and took a homeward freight. In leaving the port, she sustained damage by running on the bar, and was forced to put back and repair. The bond was given to cover advances for this purpose, and the result of this accident was very unfortunate, the repairs and expenses incurred by the master exceeding the value of the ship and freight; and the present question was, whether the remainder, nearly 5,000*l.*, should fall upon the cargo.

Dr. Addams, (with whom was Dr. Bayford,) in opposition to the bond, did not question its validity, generally; but as affecting the cargo, and the owners of the cargo. Till the case of the *Gratitudine*, it was a question whether, under any circumstances, it was in the power of the master of a ship to hypothecate the cargo; but, in that case, Lord Stowell held that a master might, under particular and special circumstances, hypothecate cargo. In this case, there were no such special circumstances; and the advances made under the bond, though they might be for the benefit of the ship and freight, were not for the benefit of the cargo.

Dr. Lushington, without hearing Dr. Harding and Dr. Elphinstone in support of the bond, was clearly of opinion that there was no tenable ground of opposition to it. The master was without funds or credit at Pernambuco; and, although the respectability of the owner was well known, he had furnished the master with no authority to draw upon any person in the Brazils; and there was nothing in the whole transaction, unfortunate as it had turned out, which had the slightest appearance of fraud or impropriety. On the contrary, the agent for Messrs. McAliment & Co., who had advanced the money, had acted for the best. The shippers of the cargo were upon the spot, and could have objected; but, with one or two trifling exceptions, they had acquiesced. It was idle to suppose that the cargo could be exempted from liability, where the ship and freight were insufficient; and he pronounced for the validity of the bond, with interest and costs.

## COLLISION—SCHOONERS CHRISTINA AND DRAPER.

In the British Admiralty Court, March 12, 1844. The collision in this case occurred on the night of the 29th of November, between two schooners—the *Christina*, of 100 tons, and the *Draper*, of 80 tons; the former on her voyage to Rouen, with coals, the latter from Exmouth to Portsmouth, with general merchandise. The place of the accident was between Dungeness and the North Foreland. The consequences of the collision were, that the *Draper* sank in a quarter of an hour afterwards, and the *Christina* was obliged to put into Ramsgate to repair her damage. The evidence as to all the material facts—direction of the wind, courses of the vessels, points from whence seen, and measures taken before and after the occurrence—was in a state of utter conflict. The Court was assisted by Trinity Masters. After hearing Dr. Addams and Dr. Pratt for the *Draper*, and the Queen's Advocate and Dr. Bayford for the *Christina*, Dr. Lushington summed up the case to the gentlemen by whom he was assisted, observing that it was wholly impossible to reconcile the affidavits, and difficult to say to which side credit should be given. The Trinity Masters said that this case was so contradictory, altogether, in its statements, that, previous to coming into Court, they had requested the assistance of the Deputy-Master. Both vessels stated that they saw the other on the lee bow, steering in opposite directions, and both stated that they were close-hauled, which was impossible. From certain admitted facts, however, they were of opinion that the *Christina's* statement had been borne out, and that no blame attached to her; but that the blame attached exclusively to the *Draper*, the vessel sunk. The learned judge pronounced for the damage; adding that, however he might regret it, yet, according to the principles adopted in other Courts, and as a matter of justice to the other party, he was bound to give the costs.

## MARINE INSURANCE—ELLWAND VS. M'DONNELL.

In the British Rolls' Court, July 6, 1844, before Lord Langdale. This cause came on upon the defendant's exceptions to the master's report, that his further answer was insufficient. Mr. Kindersley, Mr. Turner, and Mr. Hetherington, were for the defendant against, and Mr. Heathfield for the plaintiff for, the report. The bill stated the formation, in Dublin, of "The Patriotic Assurance Company of Ireland," in 1826; their employment of the defendant, who, at the time of filing the bill, was a member, as their agent in England; that William Ellwand, the plaintiff's father, insured with them goods on board the *Anne*, from Liverpool to Buenos Ayres; and the defendant, as the company's agent, signed the policy for 500*l*. The *Anne* was captured by the Brazilian government, and the goods were seized and condemned. William Ellwand brought an action for a total loss, on which the company proposed to pay 60*l*. per cent; Ellwand to make what he could of his goods, by salvage or compensation. Ellwand agreed, on having his costs. The 200*l*., and costs, were paid—Ellwand delivered up the policy, on which a memorandum was endorsed by the defendant, "Settled—60*l*. per cent, by compromise, in full of all claim;" and the company gave up the goods, and renounced all right to salvage or compensation. The Brazilian government afterwards made compensation, which they paid to the British charge-d'affaires, and he transferred to the company, who sent out powers to claim from the commissioners a portion of the indemnity. William Ellwand died, leaving the plaintiff his executor, who filed the bill, insisting that the company were trustees for him; charging that the defendant was a member, and that by their act all actions and suits were to be instituted against the secretary, or against any one member, as the nominal defendant on behalf of the company, and containing various interrogatories for discovery. The prayer was for a declaration that the plaintiff was entitled to the whole of the moneys received from the Brazilian government.

The defendant, in his first answer, of February, 1843, said he was, but is not now, one of the members—in his second answer, of November last, he said he was not a member, but was one at the time of filing the original bill; and, in his last answer, said he constantly resided in London, never had any share in the direction, which was carried on in Dublin entirely by the directors there, who had the exclusive custody of the books, and that he was the London agent.

Lord Langdale said the single question was, whether the answer was sufficient. The plaintiff, being resident here, did not go to Ireland, where he might sue the secretary, but sued the defendant here in England, and wanted a discovery of papers. The defendant said, "I am not a member—I was one, but am not now, and I have no right to get at the documents." The only answer he had heard to this, was, "You must be able to get them somehow or other;" and the argument was, "You were a member when the bill was filed, and cannot get rid of your liability as such, by any subsequent act." The defendant had divested himself, he would not say properly, it might be improper, of the power of giving the discovery, and was he to be put into jail? Had the defendant put in the best answer he was able; and, having divested himself of the power of obtaining certain information, was he to be sent to prison because he could not get it? No authority had been cited; neither was he to send the defendant to jail because his solicitor could not find papers. The defendant having been a partner during the liabilities, had now ceased to be one. He might be liable personally, but had no right to walk into the company's office, and say, "Give me the information." The account he had given ought to exempt him—the exceptions must be allowed, and the deposit returned.

## SALVAGE—THE GLASGOW PACKET.

In the British Court of Admiralty, June 3, 1844. Dr. Lushington gave sentence in this case. The vessel proceeded against, bound from Glasgow to London, had been run into by another vessel, whilst at Gravesend-reach; upon which her rudder was slipped, and she was towed by the *Tam O'Shanter* to the Essex shore, in the performance of which service three men from the *Spring* assisted, and some parts of the cargo were put on board the *Grey Mare Meg*. The services



of the salvors commenced, according to their own account, while the vessel was in this condition at anchor, and likely to sink. The learned Judge directed his attention to the following points:—first, when the service did commence; second, of what kind it was, and the degree of merit to be attributed to it; third, when it ended. The salvors alleged that it commenced about eleven o'clock on the 30th of November, by the mate hailing them to save what they could: this averment was not specifically denied, and was supported by affidavits. The Hope and the Confidence afterwards came up, and the mate gave charge of the vessel to two of the salvors; and as the Court must take the meaning of the written document from its contents, not from any parol explanation, the effect of this charge was, that the care of the vessel was given to the persons named, and that it conveyed an authority to do all they thought fit for the preservation of the property. He was therefore of the opinion that those salvors were entitled to be paid a reasonable compensation for their exertions, from about noon, of the 30th of November, till some time on the 2d of December, when the persons arrived from London. The tender of 9*l.* 12*s.* he thought inadequate for these services; but before he adjudicated, he must look to subsequent occurrences. The next question was, whether these men were legally discharged from further interference with the vessel, and when. In ordinary cases, when the services of the first set of salvors had been accepted, and they were competent to perform the whole service, they could not be dispossessed by subsequent salvors; but here the vessel was actually sunk, and the original salvors could not have raised her, and besides, the owners were on the spot. Nor had possession been acquired by successful services, and there was no necessity for keeping the ship as a security; the owners were known, and the ship could not have escaped the process of the court. If, then, they were discharged *de facto* by the owners or their agents, there was no justifiable pretence for any attempt to continue their services, and they could not claim payment for what was due against the will of the owners. As to the fact of their having been discharged on the 2d of December, when the persons arrived who were hired to weigh the ship, there can be no doubt. He considered the subsequent conduct of the salvors after their discharge as exceedingly reprehensible, and he should not allow any compensation to them for services, if they were services, improperly intruded. He pronounced against the tender, and gave 40*l.* for the services performed between the 30th of November and the 2d of December, and he limited the cost of salvors to 20*l.* *nomine expensarum*. He could not conclude without adverting to the affidavits made by a person of the name of Neale. In the first, he stated that “unless there had been a great number of men employed in addition to those provided by the said Benjamin Jones and a part of the schooner’s crew who were also there, the schooner could not possibly have been raised, and that there was, with the said James Groves and the men who acted with him, scarcely strength enough for that purpose.” In the second affidavit, he swore, “that the barges, lighters, and apparatus with the deponent and the other men employed by the said Benjamin Jones, coupled with the assistance of the schooner’s crew, were amply sufficient for raising the schooner”—in its very terms contradicting what he had originally sworn. He (the learned Judge) should consider the propriety of submitting these affidavits to the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty, and whether their lordships might not think it right and proper to give directions to their solicitor to prosecute this person, and all others who should so attempt to pervert the course of justice.

## SALVAGE—THE JOHN GOODALL.

In the British Court of Admiralty, July 12, 1844. The vessel in this case was sued by no less than three sets of salvors, each bringing a separate action, and appearing by two counsel. The short facts of the case were these:—The vessel of 399 tons burden, had left London, bound on a voyage to the Cape and Calcutta, with a valuable cargo, in tow of a steam-tug, the Gray Mare Meg, on the 24th of April last. She had arrived off Gravesend, and anchored close to the Kentish shore, where, in the night, she was discovered to be on fire in the hold, supposed to be the effect of spontaneous combustion. A signal of distress was

hoisted, there was presently no lack of assistance—21 skiffs, with 67 Gravesend men on board, including two pilots and two steam vessels, the *Gray Mare Meg* and the *Lion*, offered their services, and the people on board the *John Goodall* were literally "encumbered with help." The vessel was conveyed from the Kent to the Essex shore, and scuttled so as to extinguish the flames; part of the property, especially the chronometers, was carried on shore, and she was finally conveyed towards London, the constant pumping being insufficient too keep her free. The present value of the property, after the damage sustained by fire and water, was 13,382*l*. The owners had tendered 120*l*. to the steamer *Gray Mare Meg*, and 100*l*. to the *Lion*, but made no tender to the pilots or the Gravesend men, considering their services to have been unnecessary and intrusive. The parties were represented respectively by the Queen's advocate, Dr. Phillimore, Dr. Addams, Dr Haggard, Dr. Harding, Dr. Bayford, Dr. R. Phillimore, and Dr. H. Nicholl.

Dr. Lushington, after investigating and discriminating with great care the facts and nature of the services rendered by the respective claimants, came to the conclusion that the services rendered by the Gravesend men had been promptly and efficiently rendered, though they were not of a nature to be highly rewarded, and he allotted to them 250*l*., out of which two, named Briggs and Dicks, were to be paid 5*l*. each, in addition to their share; to the *Gray Mare Meg* he gave 150*l*., instead of 120*l*., the sum tendered; and with respect to the *Lion*, which had done no more than tug the disabled vessel, with the assistance of the other steamer, up to London, he pronounced in favor of the tender, though without (under the circumstances) condemning the owners of that vessel in the costs. The learned Judge commented severely upon the unnecessary proceeding, on the part of the salvors, in three separate actions, and intimated, that if it were repeated, he should take measures to repress the practice.

The Queen's Advocate (for the owners).—Are the owners to pay the costs of all the three parties? Dr. Lushington.—The costs of one set of salvors, to whom you made an insufficient tender; but not the costs of the *Lion*.

#### MARINE INSURANCE.

Western Circuit, Bristol, (England,) before Chief Justice Patteson, and a special jury. *Parfit vs. Thompson and others*. This action was brought to recover the amount of the loss on a policy of insurance for 2,000*l*., which had been effected on a vessel called the "*Hutchinson*," by the Forth Marine Insurance Company, of which the defendants were members. The ship was built in 1825, and purchased by the plaintiff in 1838, when she was repaired at an expense of 1,500*l*. In 1841, she was chartered by Laurie, Hamilton & Co., on a voyage to Sierra Leone, and then this insurance was effected. On the 10th of March, 1841, the vessel sailed from Bristol, under the command of Captain White. In the Bay of Biscay the weather was very bad, but the vessel arrived in the Malacour river on the 15th of April, where it remained till the 9th of July, when she sailed for England. When off the Isles de Los, there was very rough weather; but when off Cape Verd, the windlass, anchor, &c., were lost, and the vessel became leaky, and with some difficulty reached the Gambia river. An agent of Lloyd's then surveyed the vessel, and it being found necessary that very considerable repairs must be done, and which could not be completed there, it was considered best to sell the vessel, which fetched 411*l*. The defendants contended that they were not liable for a total loss, but only a portion; and they paid 400*l*. into Court, and alleged that the question was, whether the vessel had sustained the damage by the perils of the sea, or through unworthiness.

Mr. Justice Patteson having summed up, the jury returned a verdict for the plaintiff, the amount of damage to be regulated by Mr. Powell, of London.

#### COLLISION—BRITISH BRIGS SUSAN AND COLONIA.

In the British Admiralty Court, before Dr. Lushington, January 23, 1844. This was a cross action between the owners of two brigs, the *Susan* and the *Colonia*, which, on the afternoon of the 4th of October, in daylight, the weather being fair, came into collision off Folkestone. The fault of the collision was attributed by each vessel to the other, and this question depended upon the consid-

eration of matters of nautical science; to determine which, the Court had the assistance of Trinity Masters. After hearing Dr. Addams and Dr. R. Phillimore for the Susan, and the Queen's Advocate and Dr. Bayford for the Colonia, the Trinity Masters delivered it as their opinion that the collision was entirely in consequence of the Colonia starboarding her helm when she ought to have put it to port, and that there was no reason, whatever, to impute any blame to the Susan. Dr. Lushington pronounced for the claim of the Susan, and dismissed the owners of that vessel from the other action, with costs.

## MONTHLY COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE.

THE MARKETS—PRICES OF UNITED STATES PRODUCE IN THE NEW YORK MARKET, AT DIFFERENT PERIODS—PRICES OF IMPORTED GOODS IN NEW YORK—EXPORTS OF BRITISH MANUFACTURES FROM GREAT BRITAIN, FROM 1841 TO 1844—IMPORTS OF LEADING ITEMS OF FOREIGN PRODUCE INTO THE UNITED KINGDOM—GROSS REVENUE ON MERCHANDISE—POPULATION AND REVENUE OF THE GERMAN ZOLL-VEREIN—TRAFFIC OF GERMAN RAILWAYS, FOR 1844—CONSUMPTION OF SUGAR IN THE ZOLL-VEREIN, IN 1844.

THE markets have, during the past month, presented an anomalous appearance. At the close of our article for April, we briefly alluded to the new reductions of duties upon articles of foreign growth consumed in England, leading to an increased demand for United States produce. The influence of those advices, as a general cause, added to some collateral reasons, produced considerable animation and rise in many important articles. The result of this rise has been naturally an increase in the demand for money, inasmuch as that the same quantity of produce requires now for its purchase a larger sum of money than was the case some months since. The progress of prices in New York is expressed in the following table:—

PRICES OF UNITED STATES PRODUCE IN THE NEW YORK MARKET, AT DIFFERENT PERIODS.

	1843.	1844.			
	Oct. 14.	Feb. 14.	April 20.	June 8.	Sept. 7.
Ashes, ..... bbl.	\$4 50	\$4 75	\$4 50	\$4 25	\$4 25
Beeswax, N. Y., ..... 100 lbs.	29 00	30 00	29 75	29 50	30 00
Candles, tallow, m. ....	11 50	12 00	12 00	12 00	12 00
" sperm, ..... "	33 00	33 00	32 00	32 00	32 00
Coal, anth., ..... ton	5 50	5 50	5 50	5 25	5 50
Cordage, Am., ..... 100 lbs.	12 00	12 00	12 00	12 00	12 00
Cotton, N. O. fair, ..... "	8 75	10 75	8 87	8 25	7 50
Cot. bagging, Ky., ..... 100 yds.	16 00	16 00	16 00	17 00	17 00
Sheetings, B. 4-4, ..... "	5 50	9 00	9 00	9 00	9 00
Dry cod, ..... cwt.	2 37	2 75	3 00	3 00	2 50
Mackerel, No. 1, ..... bbl.	10 00	10 87	10 87	10 25	10 75
Flax, Am., ..... 100 lbs.	8 50	8 50	8 50	8 50	8 50
Flour, Western, ..... bbl.	4 50	4 94	5 06	4 56	4 25
" Rye, ..... "	3 12	3 62	3 25	3 12	3 12
Wheat, ..... bushel	95	1 05	1 12	98	92
Rye, ..... "	65	70	71	67	67
Corn, ..... "	52	48	54	47	46
Hemp, dew rotted, ..... cwt.	5 75	5 50	5 75	4 50	5 00
Hops, ..... 100 lbs.	10 00	9 00	8 00	8 00	8 00
Iron, Am. pig, ..... ton	27 50	28 50	28 50	30 00	30 00
" rolled, ..... "	70 00	70 00	77 50	80 00	80 00
Lead, pig, ..... 100 lbs.	3 45	3 55	3 30	3 45	3 47
Molasses, N. O., ..... 100 gals.	27 00	32 00	30 00	31 00	32 00
Tar, ..... bbl.	1 75	1 50	1 62	1 56	1 69
Turpentine, N. C., soft, ....	2 50	2 62	2 75	2 62	2 37
Lead, W. Am., ..... 100 lbs.	8 00	8 00	8 00	8 00	7 00
Oil, whale, ..... 100 gal.	38 50	40 00	35 00	34 00	38 00
Beef, mess, ..... bbl.	6 75	6 25	6 50	5 50	5 75
Pork, ..... "	11 00	9 62	9 25	8 62	9 50

## PRICES OF UNITED STATES PRODUCE, ETC.—Continued.

	1843.	1844.			
	Oct. 14.	Feb. 14.	April 20.	June 8.	Sept. 7.
Lard, Ohio,.....100 lbs.	\$8 00	\$7 25	\$7 50	\$6 25	\$6 50
Butter, Wes. dairy,.....	14 00	16 00	18 00	15 00	11 00
Cheese,.....	5 50	5 50	7 00	5 50	5 50
Rice,.....	3 00	2 87	3 25	3 25	3 62
Clover,.....	8 50	11 00	8 59	8 00	8 75
Whiskey,.....100 galls.	25 00	24 00	23 25	23 50	25 00
Steel, Am.,.....100 lbs.	5 00	5 00	5 00	5 00	5 00
Sugar, N. O.,.....	6 87	7 25	7 37	7 25	7 00
Tallow,.....	7 50	7 25	7 00	7 00	7 25
Tobacco, Ky.,.....	6 50	6 50	6 50	6 00	6 00
Whalebone,.....	48 00	50 00	35 00	30 75	48 00
Wool, Merino,.....	32 00	42 00	42 00	40 00	43 00
Total, 41 articles,.....	\$538 43	\$567 07	\$549 21	\$545 50	\$558 82

## PRICES OF UNITED STATES PRODUCE, ETC.—Continued.

	1844.	1845.				
	Nov. 16.	Jan. 4.	Feb. 5.	Mar. 5.	Mar. 29.	Apr 5.
Ashes,.....bbl.	\$4 00	\$3 75	\$4 00	\$4 00	\$4 00	\$4 00
Beeswax, N. Y.,.....100 lbs.	29 50	29 50	29 50	30 00	30 00	30 00
Candles, tallow, m.,.....	12 00	12 00	12 00	11 00	11 00	11 00
“ sperm,.....	31 00	30 00	29 00	28 00	29 00	29 00
Coal, anth.,.....ton	6 00	6 00	6 00	6 00	6 00	6 00
Cordage, Am.,.....100 lbs.	12 00	12 00	12 00	12 00	12 00	12 00
Cotton, N. O. fair,.....	7 00	6 37	6 25	7 00	7 37	7 37
Cotton bagging, Ky.,100 yards	17 00	17 00	15 00	15 00	15 00	15 00
Sheetings, B. 4-4,.....	8 00	8 00	8 00	6 50	7 50	7 50
Dry cod,.....cwt.	2 62	2 50	2 50	2 75	2 75	2 75
Mackerel, No. 1,.....bbl.	11 75	12 50	12 50	12 00	11 75	11 75
Flax, Am.,.....100 lbs.	8 50	8 50	8 50	8 00	8 00	7 00
Flour, Western,.....bbl.	4 69	4 68	4 87	4 87	4 81	4 75
“ Rye,.....	3 50	3 37	3 62	3 25	3 25	3 12
Wheat,.....bush.	1 05	1 00	1 00	1 00	1 05	1 05
Rye,.....	70	68	68	67	71	70
Corn,.....	50	50	45	47	48	49
Hemp, dew rotted,.....cwt.	4 37	4 50	4 75	4 70	4 75	4 75
Hops,.....100 lbs.	12 75	15 00	15 00	15 00	14 00	14 00
Iron, Am. pig,.....ton	31 00	31 00	32 50	34 00	34 00	37 00
“ rolled,.....	80 00	80 00	80 00	87 50	95 00	95 00
Lead, pig,.....100 lbs.	4 12	4 00	3 87	3 50	4 00	4 00
Molasses, N. O.,.....100 galls.	30 00	22 00	23 00	27 00	35 00	36 00
Tar,.....bbl.	1 94	1 75	1 75	1 56	1 56	1 56
Turpentine, N. C., soft,.....	2 37	2 50	2 62	2 62	2 81	2 75
Lead, W. Am.,.....100 lbs.	7 00	7 00	7 00	8 50	7 50	7 50
Oil, whale,.....100 galls.	35 00	33 00	31 50	30 25	32 00	32 00
Beef, mess,.....bbl.	6 50	7 00	7 25	7 50	8 75	9 25
Pork,.....	9 00	9 50	10 00	10 25	14 00	13 75
Lard, Ohio,.....100 lbs.	6 25	6 50	7 00	7 00	8 00	8 25
Butter, Western dairy,.....	14 00	14 00	15 00	16 00	15 00	15 00
Cheese,.....	5 75	6 50	7 00	8 00	8 00	8 00
Rice,.....	3 62	3 25	3 31	3 50	3 62	3 62
Clover,.....	7 50	8 00	7 37	7 25	7 00	7 00
Whiskey,.....100 gallons	28 00	25 50	23 00	23 00	24 50	24 50
Steel, Am.,.....100 lbs.	5 00	5 00	5 00	5 00	5 00	5 00
Sugar, N. O.,.....	6 75	5 00	5 50	6 25	7 50	7 50
Tallow,.....	7 37	7 25	7 25	7 00	7 00	7 00
Tobacco, Ky.,.....	6 50	5 50	5 50	5 50	5 50	5 50
Whalebone,.....	41 00	40 00	35 00	35 00	35 00	35 00
Wool, Merino,.....	42 00	38 00	38 00	38 00	38 00	38 00
Total, 41 articles,.....	\$557 30	\$540 10	\$533 59	\$514 70	\$572 26	\$575 41



The aggregate, down to April 5th, shows an advance of \$41 82, or nearly 9 per cent, from February 5th, a period of sixty days. The improvement did not, however, pervade every article, but evinced itself in some of leading importance; such as ashes, cotton, iron, molasses, sugar, lard, pork, beef, and cheese. The rise in the value of these articles required an additional sum, equal to \$30,000,000, to represent the same quantities. The effect of this upon the money market has been to advance and steady the rate of interest, which has ruled 6 to 6½ per cent, very nearly, since the 1st of February. During the corresponding period of last year, the rate of interest, which had advanced to 7½ per cent in February, under the large speculations in cotton, suddenly fell off, in the months of March and April, to 3 a 3½ per cent, and promoted a considerable rise in stocks, as well as of imported goods. The prices of both, however, declined subsequently. This year, the speculation seems rather to run in the articles of agricultural produce, and thereby holds out the promise of greater permanence in the evidently increasing general prosperity. The change which has been undergone in the prices of imported goods, at periods corresponding with those included in the above table, is as follows:—

PRICES OF IMPORTED GOODS IN NEW YORK.

	1843.	1844.			
	Oct. 14.	Feb. 14.	April 20.	June 5.	Sept. 7.
Barilla,.....ton	\$27 00	\$27 00	\$28 00	\$27 00	\$30 00
Bristles, St. Peter,.....lb.	1 10	1 10	1 10	1 10	1 10
Coal, Liverpool,.....chald.	10 00	8 87	8 25	8 25	9 50
Cocoa, Guayaquil,....100 lbs.	9 50	9 50	9 50	9 50	9 00
Coffee, Cuba,.....	8 00	7 50	7 50	7 50	7 50
Copper, sheathing,.....	22 00	22 00	22 00	21 50	21 00
Opium, Turkey,.....lb.	2 50	3 50	3 50	3 25	3 25
Balsam Copaiva,....100 lbs.	23 00	35 00	24 00	25 00	25 00
Saleratus,.....	5 00	4 75	4 50	4 50	4 00
Duck, Russian,.....piece	17 50	17 00	17 00	17 00	17 00
Fustic, Cuba,.....ton	26 00	26 00	26 00	26 00	28 00
Flax, Russian,.....100 lbs.	11 00	11 00	11 00	11 00	11 00
Raisins, bunch,.....box	1 75	2 12	2 25	2 25	2 37
Hemp, Russ., clean,....cwt.	9 55	9 55	9 55	9 55	9 00
Hides,.....100 lbs.	13 50	12 75	13 50	13 25	12 50
Indigo, Madras,.....lb.	1 00	1 00	90	90	87
Iron, Eng. pig,.....ton	26 00	34 00	32 50	35 00	34 00
" common bar,.....	57 50	57 50	57 50	65 00	65 00
Mahogany, St. Dom.,100 ft.	40 00	50 00	55 00	55 00	80 00
Oil, Eng. linseed,.....gallon	85	90	85	75	75
Plaster Paris,.....	2 00	2 25	2 50	2 50	2 25
Salt, Turk's Isl.,....100 bush.	26 00	30 00	31 00	34 00	26 50
Cloves,.....100 lbs.	27 00	27 00	26 00	26 00	26 00
Pepper,.....	8 75	10 75	10 75	11 00	10 75
Brandy, Otard,.....gall.	2 50	2 65	2 81	2 81	2 65
Sugar, Cuba m.,....100 lbs.	7 50	7 25	7 50	7 00	6 75
Teas, Hyson,.....lb.	90	90	80	90	1 00
Total, 27 articles,.....	\$387 40	\$411 84	\$405 76	\$420 51	\$446 74

PRICES OF IMPORTED GOODS IN NEW YORK—Continued.

	1844.	1845.				
	Nov. 16.	Jan. 4.	Feb. 1.	Mar. 5.	Mar. 29.	April 5.
Barilla,.....ton	\$30 00	\$32 00	\$32 00	\$33 00	\$32 00	\$32 00
Bristles, St. Peter,.....lb.	1 10	1 10	1 10	1 10	1 10	1 10
Coal, Liverpool,.....chald.	10 25	10 50	10 50	10 00	10 25	10 25
Cocoa, Guayaquil, . . 100 lbs.	9 00	9 00	9 00	9 00	9 00	9 00
Coffee, Cuba,.....	7 00	7 00	7 00	7 00	7 00	7 25
Copper, sheathing,.....	21 50	21 50	21 50	21 50	21 50	21 50
Opium, Turkey,.....lb.	3 40	3 50	3 50	3 75	5 00	5 00
Balsam Copaiva,....100 lbs.	25 00	25 00	25 00	24 00	24 00	24 00

\$575 41

## PRICES OF IMPORTED GOODS IN NEW YORK—Continued.

	1844.		1845.		Feb. 1.	Mar. 5.	Mar. 29.	April 5.
	Nov. 16.	Jan. 4.	Nov. 16.	Jan. 4.				
Saleratus,.....	\$4 00	\$4 00	\$4 00	\$4 00	\$4 00	\$4 00	\$4 00	\$4 25
Duck, Russian,..... .piece	17 00	17 00	17 00	17 00	17 00	17 00	17 00	17 00
Fustic, Cuba,..... .ton	28 00	28 00	28 00	28 00	28 00	28 00	28 00	28 00
Flax, Russian,.....100 lbs.	11 00	11 00	11 00	11 00	11 00	11 00	11 00	11 00
Raisins, bunch,..... .box	2 62	2 75	2 70	2 65	2 60	2 55	2 50	2 55
Hemp, Russ. clean,.....ton	8 75	9 25	9 50	9 75	10 50	10 25	10 00	10 25
Hides,.....100 lbs.	12 25	12 25	12 00	11 75	12 00	12 00	12 00	12 00
Indigo, Madras,.....lb.	90	90	90	90	87	87	87	87
Iron, Eng. pig,.....ton	31 00	31 00	32 50	37 50	45 00	47 50	45 00	47 50
“ common bar,.....	65 00	65 00	65 00	70 00	80 00	85 00	80 00	85 00
Mahogany, St. Dom., 100 ft.	92 00	75 00	75 00	75 00	75 00	75 00	75 00	75 00
Oil, Eng. linseed,.....gallon	74	73	73	75	75	75	75	75
Plaster Paris,.....	2 62	2 62	2 62	2 62	2 62	2 62	2 62	2 62
Salt, Turk's Isl., 100 bush.	26 00	24 00	24 00	24 00	27 00	27 00	27 00	27 00
Cloves,.....100 lbs.	26 00	26 00	25 50	25 50	25 50	25 50	25 50	25 50
Pepper,.....	10 25	10 00	10 00	10 50	10 75	10 75	10 75	10 75
Brandy, Otard,.....gal.	2 60	2 75	2 60	2 60	2 60	2 50	2 50	2 50
Sugar, Cuba m.,.....100 lbs.	6 75	6 50	5 50	6 00	6 00	6 00	6 00	6 00
Teas, Hyson,.....lb.	85	85	85	85	85	85	85	85

Total, 27 articles,..... \$455 53 \$439 20 \$439 00 \$449 76 \$471 89 \$479 49

The advance in this class of articles is less general, during the past spring, than in that of domestic produce; and less so this, than during the same period of the last year. The animation in business, last year, evinced itself more in those articles which the agriculturists purchase, than in those which they sell. This naturally produced a slight revulsion, inasmuch as that it involved the inability of the consumers, to some extent, to pay; and several extensive failures took place during the spring season, arising from this inability to collect debts. The movement this spring has been in those articles which farmers have to sell; and the advancing money prices are indicative that the trade will react upon the Atlantic cities, in enhanced purchases of goods. The immediate incentive to this disposition to speculate, was the diminution in the Cuba crop of sugar, accompanied by such a modification of the British tariff as was estimated to enhance the consumption some 50,000 tons in the British islands. The supply of pork was also alleged to be greatly deficient, owing to a scarcity of corn in the western states. This advanced the price of that, and kindred articles, to a very considerable extent. The rise in sugar has fortunately been accompanied with a very large crop in Louisiana—consequently, the planters reap the advantage of a high value on an extensive production. In iron, a very considerable advance has taken place, based mostly on the great demand for iron for railroads, and other purposes, in England; the markets here sympathizing with the movement. It is remarkable that the progress of business, both here and in England, as well as on the continent, has been predicated upon the increased consumption of food and goods evincing a greatly improved condition of the people, in a better reward for their labor. This is generally indicated in the enhancement of all indirect taxes, both in the United States, France, Belgium, the Zollverein, and Great Britain. Of these, the customs duties are the most important. In the case of Great Britain, the amount of revenue has been considerably enhanced, notwithstanding that the rate of some of the duties was diminished. Perhaps, however, the exports of Great Britain afford the best indication, not only of the improvement of the markets to which her goods are sent for sale, but also of the enhanced employment her operatives have enjoyed, and the extent to which raw materials have been consumed. The following is a table of the declared value of leading heads of British exports, for four years:—

## DECLARED VALUE OF EXPORTS OF BRITISH MANUFACTURES FROM GREAT BRITAIN.

	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.
Coal and culm,.....	£671,929	£733,574	£685,331	£665,584
Cotton goods,.....	16,209,241	13,910,084	16,248,759	18,823,402
Cotton yarn,.....	7,262,510	7,752,676	7,191,879	7,008,184
Earthenware,.....	590,772	554,221	629,585	751,279
Glassware,.....	421,271	310,061	336,910	388,608
Manufactures of iron,....	1,625,191	1,392,888	1,744,037	2,167,673
“ “ flax,....	3,356,030	2,360,152	2,816,111	3,055,243
Yarn of flax,.....	900,840	1,023,978	873,164	1,021,796
Iron,.....	2,867,950	2,453,892	2,574,494	3,194,904
Copper and brass,.....	1,529,488	1,821,754	1,652,991	1,735,528
Lead,.....	238,461	357,377	258,669	276,296
Tin in bars,.....	86,708	190,911	109,943	76,655
Tin plate,.....	368,047	348,236	480,407	483,609
Salt,.....	175,663	206,639	208,207	226,940
Silk goods,.....	786,066	589,644	664,661	735,094
Refined sugar,.....	547,834	439,335	415,812	331,264
Sheep's wool,.....	557,676	510,965	417,835	532,478
Yarn of wool,.....	489,344	503,521	697,354	944,515
Manufactures of wool,....	5,787,544	5,190,243	6,784,432	8,296,216
Total, .....	£44,545,595	£40,738,151	£44,790,563	£50,615,265

The increase is here no less than £5,900,000, or more than 12 per cent. The most important increase has been in cotton and woollen goods, and hardware. The aggregate advance in exports, from 1842, was no less than 25 per cent, notwithstanding that the prices of the articles have declined. This fact is of itself sufficient to account for the continued accumulation of coin in the vaults of the bank, during the last two years. So large an increase of the exports of the products of British industry has, to some extent, involved an enhancement of the import of raw materials, and thus helped to swell the revenues of the country. The official imports, however, show that the greatest increase in the customs of Great Britain, during the past year, has been in those articles of general consumption imported from abroad, that come under the general head of food. The following table shows the quantities of the several articles imported for three years, with the amount of gross duty collected on each, for the year 1844:—

## IMPORT OF LEADING ITEMS OF FOREIGN PRODUCE INTO THE UNITED KINGDOM, AND THE GROSS REVENUE PAID IN BY EACH ARTICLE, IN 1844.

	1842.	1843.	1844.	Am't duties.
Barilla,.....cwt.	42,780	45,340	52,440	£866
Bark,.....	639,433	838,088	653,937	*8,305
Butter,.....	180,892	148,288	180,965	186,667
Cheese,.....	180,829	166,584	213,523	117,272
Cocon,.....lbs.	2,251,145	2,541,691	2,590,528	11,612
Coffee,.....	28,583,931	30,031,606	31,394,225	682,218
Wheat,.....qrs.	2,607,944	869,149	823,271	674,861
Barley,.....	49,969	223,543	1,028,902	204,806
Oats,.....	282,543	41,963	262,358	77,910
Rye,.....	28,515	2,724	28,779	9,453
Peas,.....	80,451	45,218	122,981	38,857
Beans,.....	43,279	45,702	225,680	71,181
Flour,.....	1,125,801	ctr. 426,794	ctr. 712,968	22,677
Cochineal,.....lbs.	604,240	827,456	758,912	357
Indigo,.....	3,135,888	2,748,928	3,639,888	*1,804
Lac dye,.....	838,208	776,160	948,640	*445
Fustic,.....tons	16,763	20,422	20,703	*2,175
Madder,.....cwt.	93,546	148,791	95,961	*2,523
“ root,.....	84,788	102,194	97,266	*1,281

NOTE.—Those duties marked thus, (\*) are to be removed, with the exception of sugar, on which the reduction is estimated at \$6,000,000.

## IMPORT OF LEADING ITEMS OF FOREIGN PRODUCE INTO UNITED KINGDOM, ETC.—Continued.

	1842.	1843.	1844.	Am't duties.
Eggs,.....No.	89,347,823	70,448,250	67,487,920	£24,606
Flax,.....cwt.	1,148,616	1,439,574	1,595,839	7,010
Currants,.....	196,522	254,744	285,368	252,218
Figs,.....	22,938	32,450	33,310	26,209
Lemons,.....boxes	335,983	ca. 286,000	ca. 348,000	71,328
Rosin,.....cwt.	186,689	237,474	202,667	*159,486
Gloves, leather,.....pairs	1,592,028	1,839,429	1,834,989	28,557
Hemp,.....cwt.	614,167	698,472	911,715	*3,990
Hides, raw,.....	537,563	537,467	631,765	*8,767
Mahogany,.....tons	16,775	24,243	24,320	*12,781
Molasses,.....cwt.	535,191	454,437	615,510	*290,885
Copper ore,.....tons	15,208	54,271	58,591	75,206
Iron,.....	14,557	12,083	21,639	22,502
Tobacco, leaf,.....lbs.	22,152,707	22,891,526	24,535,116	3,863,389
“ manufactured,.....	225,355	263,813	240,602	113,648
Turpentine,.....cwt.	452,775	473,579	466,566	*2,041
Wine, Cape,.....galls.	371,255	332,729	349,584	50,446
“ French,.....	382,417	347,457	492,383	141,689
“ other,.....	4,321,735	5,607,267	6,235,150	1,798,961
Cotton, British,.....lbs.	70,058,016	47,194,336	65,975,952	*10,309
“ other,.....	407,659,616	538,714,848	492,039,296	*672,614
Wool, sheep's,.....	44,611,465	48,656,829	69,493,358	*37,856
Zinc,.....cwt.	56,120	82,500	114,340	300
Oil, whale and sperm,.....tuns	15,784	23,424	21,400	33,763
“ palm,.....cwt.	337,936	383,025	373,578	*9,807
“ olive,.....galls.	2,407,860	2,552,256	2,717,316	23,493
“ cocoon,.....cwt.	27,399	34,129	43,502	1,539
Quicksilver,.....lbs.	259,260	253,241	246,959	1,080
Rice,.....	252,412	259,201	327,842	8,843
“ rough,.....cwt.	319,864	153,216	304,952	13,997
Saltpetre,.....	345,926	385,675	355,014	9,321
Seed, clover,.....	140,424	70,643	92,012	48,332
“ flax and lin,.....bush.	2,873,928	3,745,272	4,874,360	*2,673
“ rape,.....	547,824	694,648	552,128	*305
Silk, raw,.....lbs.	3,936,714	3,649,467	4,021,276	17,593
“ waste,.....	1,433,712	1,495,424	1,775,872	832
“ thrown,.....	363,975	335,113	410,536	22,050
Silks, European,.....	233,872	263,774	291,008	278,074
“ India,.....pieces	39,988	98,497	129,814	8,461
Skins, seal,.....No.	350,955	413,216	268,865	*240
“ kid,.....	477,727	444,591	419,112	1,128
“ lamb, undressed,.....	854,720	1,346,127	1,561,136	*273
Cassia,.....lbs.	121,253	142,106	114,646	1,519
Cinnamon,.....	17,009	17,496	18,619	258
Cloves,.....	90,653	100,036	128,384	3,370
Mace,.....	19,010	20,371	22,689	2,978
Nutmegs,.....	170,064	168,461	109,719	15,591
Pepper,.....	2,679,624	2,790,069	3,097,563	81,313
Pimento,.....	453,488	401,520	341,152	800
Rum,.....galls.	2,097,866	2,103,989	2,198,142	1,025,858
Brandy,.....	1,083,106	1,038,941	1,023,736	1,168,316
Gin,.....	14,596	13,899	14,948	17,069
Sugar, colonial,.....cwt.	3,876,362	4,045,105	4,139,895	*5,216,296
Tallow,.....	1,034,508	1,175,545	1,085,349	*174,602
Beasts,.....No.	10,697	13,306	9,840	1,292
Tea,.....lbs.	37,391,012	40,302,981	41,366,987	4,524,613
Staves,.....No.	70,698	661	314	*3,520
Lumber,.....loads	774,444	1,363,110	1,542,671	913,086

Total duties,..... £24,421,235

NOTE.—Those duties marked thus, (\*) are to be removed, with the exception of sugar, on which the reduction is estimated at \$6,000,000.



It is observable that the whole duty is payable by about sixteen articles, which are consumed as food, in the shape, as respects manufacture, in which they are imported. Of these, grain, sugar, coffee, tea, and tobacco, form the chief; paying near £16,000,000 out of the £24,000,000, or two-thirds of the whole revenue. Of each and all of these articles, it may be remarked that the import has been progressive in the last three years. The aggregate of the four articles, excluding grain, imported, has increased 118,788,696 lbs., or 25 per cent; showing a very important progress in the physical condition of the people of England. This improvement in the ability of the masses to consume imported goods, is not confined, by any means, to the British islands; but, if we examine the official returns of the European states, we shall find a similar progress in affairs. For this purpose, we may recur to the customs revenues of the states composing the German commercial league, from its formation, down to the year 1844; and also the population added to the league at different periods, by embracing new states in the union:—

## POPULATION AND REVENUE OF THE GERMAN ZOLL-VEREIN.

Years.	Population.	Revenue. Thalers.	
1834.....	23,478,120	14,515,722	or \$10,886,792
1835.....		16,580,280	or 12,435,110
1836.....		18,162,874	or 13,622,156
1837.....		17,697,296	or 13,272,972
1838.....	25,153,629	20,119,288	or 15,089,466
1839.....		20,569,488	or 15,427,116
1840.....		21,306,191	or 15,979,643
1841.....		21,955,204	or 16,466,403
1842.....	25,193,626	23,410,563	or 17,557,880
1843.....		25,365,770	or 19,024,323
1844.....		26,471,591	or 19,853,794

This is the increase of population through the actual geographical extension of the customs union; and that increase, as compared with the revenue, gives the following proportions:—

	1834.	1844.	Increase.	Inc. per cent.
Population.....	23,478,120	25,758,669	2,279,549	9½
Revenue.....	\$10,886,792	19,853,794	8,967,002	82½

It will be observed that this is not the actual increase of population of those countries since 1834, but merely the numerical increase of the Zoll-Verein, by adding new states to the Union. The actual population is now 27,711,000. The population of the states which composed the Union in 1834, was 23,478,120. The population of the same states is now 25,534,321—an increase of 2,056,201, or about 9 per cent in ten years; the last enumeration being for 1843. It is observable that this large and increasing population, with their growing prosperity, is every year widening its demand for foreign produce, mostly that of the United States.

The facility of communication from one state to another, since the consolidation of the customs of eighteen separate states (which formerly were each encircled by custom-houses, and all their concomitant delays,) into one, has been accompanied by other facilities to industry, which have contributed to produce the results manifest in the above table. One of the greatest advantages has, doubtless, been the large sums of money drawn from England by the sale of corn, during the period of her short harvests. The application of these funds to manufacturing purposes, has greatly multiplied the exchangeable products within the German circle, and their profitable interchange has given a new impulse to the import of foreign raw materials, and tropical produce. But, perhaps, a still greater stimulant has been experienced in the progress of railroads; which, of late years, have been constructed to the extent of near 2,000 miles, embracing every part of the German empire, and bringing her distant resources within easy access of her most profitable and

extensive markets. Steam-driven cars have been substituted for the slow-moving wagons, and the proverbial industry of Germans is being turned to account by becoming available. In order to form some estimate of the extent to which this cause is operating in ameliorating the condition of the people at large, we append a table of twenty-eight principal roads; showing their length, the number of passengers transported in 1844, the quantity of freight, expressed in centners of 110½ pounds each, and the receipts for the year, as follows:—

## TRAFFIC OF GERMAN RAILWAYS, FOR 1844.

	Length. Miles.	Passengers. No.	Freight. Cent.	Receipts.
Linz-Budweis,.....	85	15,158	669,329	fl. c. 273,655—\$136,822
Linz-Munden,.....	46	133,977	884,753	231,800— 115,900
Ferdinand's North Road,	210	664,730	1,940,332	1,663,686— 831,843
Vienna Gloggnitz,.....	50	1,057,636	1,184,644	906,352— 453,176
Murzzusch-Gratz,.....	62	.....	.....	.....
Munich-Augsburg,.....	42	186,378	.....	fl. V. 282,475— 112,990
Nuremberg & Bamberg,...	40	70,387	.....	46,648— 18,658
Augsburg,.....	26	8,314	.....	3,938— 1,574
Nuremberg and Furth,...	4	479,416	314	55,402— 22,162
Taunus Road,.....	28	742,332	.....	431,270— 172,508
Baden ".....	106	1,450,257	.....	884,679— 353,871
Hamburg and Bege Dorf,.	15	193,436	.....	mh. 102,037— 28,000
Altona and Kiel,.....	72	95,008	.....	163,540— 45,640
Berlin and Anhalt,.....	102	352,346	653,710	thl. 674,701— 506,026
" " Frankfort,....	52	232,557	320,238	300,700— 225,525
" " Potsdam,....	17	435,619	.....	181,477— 136,108
" " Stettin,.....	90	273,131	748,179	408,890— 306,668
Silesia Road,.....	53	249,019	.....	152,026— 114,020
Breslau and Freiburg,...	43	249,896	296,816	138,951— 104,189
" " Liegnitz,....	45	24,476	3,953	14,884— 11,163
Saxon-Bavarian,.....	45	217,179	432,575	177,603— 133,200
Leipsic and Dresden,....	72	430,197	945,774	608,819— 456,615
" " Magdeburg,...	80	685,953	1,375,421	690,951— 518,189
Helberstadt and ".....	38	220,618	399,444	133,222— 99,917
Brunswick Road,.....	65	462,502	.....	218,397— 183,798
Hanover ".....	41	135,554	191,827	78,136— 58,602
Dusseldorf & Elberfeldt,	17	284,495	931,711	160,811— 120,609
Rheinish,.....	57	374,564	2,755,060	539,679— 404,760
Donn. Cologne,.....	20	537,610	.....	103,042— 77,282
Total,.....	1,619	10,256,780	.....	..... \$5,749,853

The receipts being given in the currency of the location of the road, as marks courant in Hamburg, convention florins in Austria, and thalers in Prussia, we have reduced the whole to United States currency, as near as may be. The result is the whole trade for 1844. Its increase is seen in the returns for the month of December, as follows:—

	No. of passengers.	Receipts. Thalers.	
December, 1843,.....	512,606	464,663	\$348,498
" " 1844,.....	610,943	539,770	404,828
Increase,.....	98,247	75,107	56,330

When we contemplate the means of communication which subsisted in former years, throughout the ancient empire of Germany—the bad roads, and the creeping wagons, met at every cross-road by the custom-house officer, and his inquisitorial inspections, to guard the revenues of each petty prince and potentate, and reflect that all these have been swept away, and that perfect freedom of intercourse admits steam-cars to connect every important point, and lay open every resource of the empire to the capitalist and the merchant, and that 10,000,000 of people within the year availed themselves of these facilities,

paying for fares and freights near \$6,000,000 to the companies, we become aware of the great revolution in progress in the interior of Europe, and that the hourly increasing ability of the people to purchase is producing a corresponding increase of consumption of foreign produce. The rate of consumption is now far behind that of England and the United States, in most leading articles; that of sugar being one. Some years since, the fever of beet-root sugar prevailed to a considerable extent, and the notion was entertained by the German States that sufficient sugar could be raised from that article, on the German soil, to supply the wants of the people. Hence, sugar of that description has entered to a considerable extent into the consumption of the country. The following table gives the quantities of each kind consumed in each of the states last year:—

## CONSUMPTION OF SUGAR IN THE ZOLL-VEREIN, 1844.

	Beet sugar.	Colonial sugar.	Total.	Population.
Prussia,.....	190,566.44	1,022,280.20	1,212,846.64	15,273,582
Bavaria,.....	3,527.03	84,119.80	87,646.03	4,375,586
Saxony,.....	1,280.20	17,894.67	19,174.94	1,706,276
Wurtemberg,.....	4,085.00	5,388.67	9,473.67	1,703,258
Baden,.....	10,924.70	72,976.61	83,901.31	1,294,131
Hesse Cassel,.....	1,195.70	17,454.33	18,650.03	702,598
" Darmstadt,...	.....	234.00	234.00	820,907
Thuringia,.....	2,150.04	29.33	2,179.37	952,214
Brunswick,.....	2,590.37	15,939.33	18,529.70	241,257
Nassau,.....	.....	1.33	1.33	398,095
Frankfort,.....	.....	466.00	464.10	67,873
Luxemburg,.....	.....	586.67	586.67	175,223
Total centners, ..	216,319.55	1,237,368.14	1,453,687.69	27,711,000
Total lbs.,.....	24,443,989	139,822,598	164,266,582	.....

The quantity of beets consumed for the manufacture of this amount of beet sugar, was 4,326,391 centners, or 488,882,003 lbs. This manufacture of beet sugar, which, in 1841, was one of importance, has now nearly perished. When the duties of the league were under debate, Bavaria and Wurtemberg objected strongly to the high duty (\$3 60 per 113 lbs.) imposed upon foreign sugars, on the ground of its increasing the price to the consumers. It was adopted, however, in consequence of the idea held out of encouraging beet-root sugar. This led to extensive cultivation of the sugar beet, and the establishment of many factories, at great expense; the result of which has been utter loss to those who embarked in it. In 1841, there were in Bavaria ten factories—there are now six. In many of the states of the league, expensive works have been abandoned altogether, although the consumption of sugar has considerably increased. It is, however, still far behind that of Great Britain; where, with nearly the same population, the quantity of sugar consumed is nearly four times as large. The consumption of cotton and rice, which are free of duty, is yet in its infancy in the Zoll-Verein; but, from the impulse which affairs have there received, as well as in the other countries of Europe, it is very evident its future growth must be very extensive, if not rivalling that of Great Britain.

The revulsion of 1836-7 has long since spent itself; and, during the period in which it swept over the commercial world, important events have transpired. Eleven colonies have been added to the possessions of Great Britain; the heretofore sealed empire of China has been opened to the commerce of the world; the gold mines of Russia have swelled their productions immensely; railroads have been stretched over every avenue of commerce in both hemispheres, which have lost half their distance from each other through the power of steam; and the vast cotton fields of Texas have been brought within the circle of the Union. All these events have been compressed into a decade, although each one of them is of sufficient importance of itself to have stamped its impress upon a century. Each and all of these influences are now beginning to exert its power in stimulating trade; and, by giving to labor a better reward, is laying the foundation of a large

increase in the consumption of raw materials and food. The great principle avowed by the British government, is to ameliorate the condition of labor, by allowing it to consume more. Its reward exists not in mere money paid to it, but in the quantity of necessities and comforts it can command for the laborer. All the elements seem to conspire to carry out this principle. The more the great laboring masses of the whole world can consume, the greater will be the demand for produce. In the last ten years, the cry has been, "over-production"—the fact has been, "under-consumption." The true remedy is, not to produce less, but consume more; and this remedy is now being powerfully applied.

## COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

### BRITISH FOREIGN AND COASTING TRADE.

*Showing the Number and Tonnage of British Vessels employed in the Coasting Trade, Irish Trade, and Foreign Trade; and the Number and Tonnage of Foreign Vessels entered inwards from all parts, including their repeated voyages—1801 to 1843.*

#### FOREIGN TRADE INWARDS.

Years.	British ships.			Foreign ships.		
	<i>Ships.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Men.</i>	<i>Ships.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Men.</i>
1801.....	4,987	922,594	.....	5,497	780,155	.....
1802.....	7,806	1,333,005	.....	3,728	480,251	.....
1803.....	6,264	1,115,702	.....	4,254	638,104	.....
1804.....	4,865	904,932	.....	4,271	607,299	.....
1805.....	5,167	953,250	.....	4,517	691,883	.....
1806.....	5,211	904,367	.....	3,793	612,904	.....
1807.....	.....	.....	.....	4,087	680,144	.....
1808.....	.....	.....	.....	1,926	283,657	.....
1809.....	5,615	938,675	.....	4,922	759,287	.....
1810.....	5,154	896,001	.....	6,876	1,176,243	.....
1811.....	.....	.....	.....	3,216	687,180	.....
1812.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
1813.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
1814.....	8,975	1,290,248	.....	5,286	599,287	.....
1815.....	8,880	1,372,108	.....	5,314	746,985	.....
1816.....	9,744	1,415,723	99,119	3,116	379,465	.....
1817.....	11,255	1,625,121	97,273	3,396	445,011	.....
1818.....	13,006	1,886,394	111,880	6,238	762,457	.....
1819.....	11,794	1,809,128	107,556	4,215	542,684	.....
1820.....	11,285	1,668,060	100,325	3,472	447,611	.....
1821.....	10,810	1,599,274	97,485	3,261	396,256	.....
1822.....	11,087	1,664,186	98,980	3,389	469,151	.....
1823.....	11,271	1,740,859	112,244	4,069	582,996	.....
1824.....	11,733	1,797,320	108,686	5,653	759,441	.....
1825.....	13,516	2,144,598	123,028	6,968	958,132	.....
1826.....	12,473	1,950,630	113,093	5,729	694,116	.....
1827.....	13,133	2,086,898	118,686	6,046	751,864	.....
1828.....	13,436	2,094,357	119,141	4,955	634,620	.....
1829.....	13,659	2,184,535	122,185	5,218	710,303	39,342
1830.....	13,548	2,180,042	122,103	5,359	758,828	41,870
1831.....	14,488	2,367,322	131,627	6,085	874,605	.....
1832.....	13,372	2,185,980	122,594	4,546	639,979	.....
1833.....	13,119	2,185,814	.....	5,505	762,085	.....
1834.....	13,903	2,298,263	.....	5,898	833,905	.....
1835.....	14,295	2,442,734	.....	6,005	866,990	.....
1836.....	14,347	2,505,473	.....	7,131	988,899	.....
1837.....	15,155	2,616,166	146,319	7,343	1,005,940	56,778
1838.....	16,119	2,785,387	154,499	8,679	1,211,666	68,891
1839.....	17,635	3,101,650	170,339	10,326	1,331,365	79,550
1840.....	17,883	3,197,501	172,404	10,198	1,460,294	81,295
1841.....	18,525	3,361,211	178,696	9,527	1,291,165	73,634
1842.....	19,980	2,332,502	.....	8,392	1,225,949	.....
1843.....	20,450	3,594,650	.....	8,837	1,324,808	.....



## COASTING AND IRISH TRADE INWARDS, INCLUDING THEIR REPEATED VOYAGES.

Years.	Coasting.		Irish Trade.	
	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
1801,.....	*.....	.....	5,360	456,026
1802,.....	*.....	.....	5,820	461,328
1803,.....	*.....	.....	5,796	504,884
1804,.....	*.....	.....	5,643	490,455
1805,.....	*.....	.....	6,306	566,790
1806,.....	*.....	.....	6,907	578,297
1807,.....	*.....	.....	No returns.	.....
1808,.....	*.....	.....	8,477	768,264
1809,.....	*.....	.....	7,041	600,898
1810,.....	*.....	.....	8,403	713,087
1811,.....	*.....	.....	9,014	789,097
1812,.....	*.....	.....	10,812	925,736
1813,.....	*.....	.....	8,569	718,851
1814,.....	*.....	.....	7,562	613,898
1815,.....	*.....	.....	8,462	680,333
1816,.....	*.....	.....	7,575	621,272
1817,.....	*.....	.....	9,186	770,547
1818,.....	*.....	.....	7,969	644,896
1819,.....	*.....	.....	8,575	699,885
1820,.....	*.....	.....	9,229	783,750
1821,.....	*.....	.....	9,440	819,648
1822,.....	*.....	.....	9,562	822,927
1823,.....	110,566	7,899,603	9,382	786,637
1824,.....	+113,033	8,101,337		
	127,365	9,167,573	7,534	615,396
1825,.....	+113,206	8,300,756		
	127,722	9,392,965	8,922	741,182
	+111,324	8,368,812		
1826,.....	125,720	9,503,554	6,388	632,972
1827,.....	.....	8,186,604	7,411	737,752
1828,.....	.....	8,911,109	8,790	923,505
1829,.....	.....	8,933,633	8,922	906,158
1830,.....	119,488	9,240,140	8,455	880,965
1831,.....	118,849	9,279,308	9,029	921,128
1832,.....	119,283	9,419,681	9,705	1,026,613
1833,.....	116,866	9,400,336	9,476	1,041,882
1834,.....	122,440	9,874,715	10,026	1,100,389
1835,.....	121,329	10,188,916	10,116	1,138,147
1836,.....	123,795	10,337,545	9,820	1,179,062
1837,.....	128,011	10,409,370	10,299	1,202,104
1838,.....	128,171	10,491,752	10,312	1,264,975
1839,.....	130,254	10,610,404	9,221	1,176,893
1840,.....	133,299	10,776,056	9,423	1,150,393
1841,.....	131,321	10,869,071	9,924	1,196,385
1842,.....	127,840	10,785,450	9,060	1,148,887
1843,.....	133,824	10,260,771	.....	.....

## BUSINESS OF LITTLE FORT, ILLINOIS.

In the first number of the Banner, a new weekly paper commenced at Little Fort, we find several items in regard to its location, business, and present state of the market. The village is situated forty-five miles north from Chicago, nine and a half miles south of the north line of the state, and sixteen miles south of Southport, W. T. On the 19th of August, 1842, Little Fort had 85 inhabitants; on the 1st of March last, 452. But the position which this place now sustains in the public eye must necessarily tend to a rapid increase of population. There is nearly one-half a section of land laid out into town

\* No returns of coasting trade previous to 1823.

† Coasting trade marked (†) 1823-4-5-6, from Huskisson's speech, 7th May, 1827.

lots, a large portion of which is already sold and improved. A substantial court-house, and sixty other new buildings, have been erected during the past year, together with a large warehouse near the pier. The imports and exports for the past season are appended. Arrivals of steam and other craft, 151.

IMPORTS.			EXPORTS.		
Merchandise,.....	tons	1,011	Wheat,.....	bush.	66,000
Lumber,.....	M. feet	883	Oats,.....	.....	200
Shingles and bolts,.....	.....	447	Hides,.....	lbs.	8,000
Salt,.....	bbls.	758	Furs and skins,.....	.....	2,000
Flour,.....	.....	650	Pork,.....	bbls.	15
Pork and beef,.....	.....	145	Wood,.....	cords	1,300

#### NEW LONDON WHALE FISHERY, FOR LAST TWENTY-FIVE YEARS.

The New London Advocate furnishes the following statement of vessels, and produce of the whale fishery, at that port, from 1820, (the time of its commencement in New London,) till 1844, inclusive:—

Years.	Ships, &c.	Whale.	Sperm.	Years.	Ships, &c.	Whale.	Sperm.
1844,.....	22	39,816	2,296	1831,.....	14	19,402	6,487
1843,.....	20	34,677	3,598	1830,.....	14	15,248	9,792
1842,.....	21	28,165	4,055	1829,.....	9	11,325	2,205
1841,.....	18	26,893	3,920	1828,.....	3	5,435	168
1840,.....	20	32,038	4,110	1827,.....	5	3,375	6,156
1839,.....	18	26,274	4,105	1826,.....	2	2,804	88
1838,.....	18	24,953	3,301	1825,.....	4	5,483	2,276
1837,.....	18	26,774	8,469	1824,.....	5	4,996	1,924
1836,.....	13	18,663	3,198	1823,.....	6	6,712	2,318
1835,.....	17	16,397	12,189	1822,.....	5	4,528	194
1834,.....	10	12,549	4,565	1821,.....	3	2,323	105
1833,.....	17	22,395	8,503	1820,.....	3	1,731	78
1832,.....	12	21,375	703				

It will be seen that the imports for the past year (whale and sperm) have exceeded that of any previous year 3,837 bbls.

#### WHALE FISHERY OF SAG HARBOR, IN 1844.

We are indebted to the politeness of our esteemed friend, Luther D. Cook, of Sag Harbor, for the following tabular statements of the whale fishery for that district, during the year 1844. Mr. Cook has been for a long time interested in this branch of commercial enterprise, and is a very accurate gatherer of the statistics of the whale fishery, for the Sag Harbor district. We should be glad if some gentlemen residing at the different ports would oblige us with similar annual statements.

##### LIST OF ARRIVALS

*Of Whaling Vessels, with the amount of the produce of the Fishery, within the District of Sag Harbor, (N. Y.,) during the year 1844.*

Time of arr.	Name.	Tons.	ABSENT.		Master.	Bbls.		
			Mo.	Ds.		Sp. oil.	Wh. oil.	Lbs. bone.
1844.								
March	18—Arabella,*.....	367	29	23	H. Babcock.	414	2,248	20,258
April	9—Franklin,†.....	391	32	27	J. Halsey.	193	2,922	28,391
"	14—Portland,*.....	292	20	11	W. H. Payne.	29	2,454	22,850
"	14—Hudson,*.....	368	18	2	H. Nickerson, jr.	00	2,369	21,840
"	19—Roanoke,†.....	251	19	18	N. Case.	94	1,720	15,417
"	25—Timor,*.....	289	18	29	A. Eldredge.	38½	2,466	26,098
May	19—Alciope,*.....	378	20	8	B. C. Payne.	152	2,419	20,776
"	24—Hamilton 1st,*...	322	22	23	I. Ludlow.	341	2,022	17,739
June	8—Wiscasset,*.....	380	30	2	S. P. Smith.	240	2,736	27,000

\* Ships.

† Barques.

June	18—Thos. Dickason,*	454	35	4	W. S. Havens.	44	4,334	37,200
"	24—Acasta,†	286	21	25	J. M. Havens.	58	1,401	13,600
"	24—Sarah & Esther,†	157	12	8	D. B. Harlow.	00	842	7,500
July	11—Ontario 1st,*	368	24	10	J. M. Green.	78	2,993	23,000
"	13—Barbara,†	260	10	16	E. H. Howes.	126	1,053	7,607
"	18—Washington,*	236	12	00	E. P. Brown.	00	1,392	10,185
"	28—Phoenix,*	314	23	28	S. P. Briggs.	00	2,518	16,920
"	28—Nimrod,†	280	11	1	A. Rogers.	189½	309	1,220
17 arrivals in 1844.		5,393 tons.			1,997		36,198	317,601
34 departures from the district, in 1844,								11,707
37 vessels sailed from the district in 1842 and 1843, and now out,								13,040
71, total number of vessels.								24,747

## LIST OF VESSELS

Engaged in the Whale Fishery, sailed from the District of Sag Harbor, (N. Y.), in 1844.

Time sl'g.	Name.	Tons.	Master.	Destination.	Managing owners & ag'ts.
1844.					
May	2—Silas Richards,*	454	Richard Dering.	N. W. C.	Mulford & Sleight.
"	13—Philip 1st,†	293	J. S. Case.	"	Wells, Carpenter & Ireland.
"	23—Panama,*	465	T. E. Crowell.	"	N. & G. Howell.
"	28—Arabella,*	367	H. Babcock.	"	N. & G. Howell.
"	28—Ohio,*	297	T. Lowen.	"	Post & Sherry.
June	1—Portland,*	292	J. Wade, jr.	"	S. & B. Hunting & Co.
"	4—Niantic,*	451	S. H. Slate.	"	Charles P. Dering.
"	5—Franklin,†	391	E. Halsey.	"	Hunting Cooper.
"	6—Gentleman,†	227	W. L. Payne.	C. I.	Ira B. Tuthill.
"	24—Sabina,*	416	D. P. Vail.	N. W. C.	Charles P. Dering.
July	1—Timor,*	289	N. Edwards.	"	Hunting Cooper.
"	8—Hudson,*	368	H. Nickerson, jr.	"	L. D. Cook and H. Green.
"	22—Hamilton 1st,*	322	J. Babcock.	I. O.	Charles P. Dering.
"	22—Alciope,*	377	J. Halsey.	N. W. C.	Post & Sherry.
"	29—St. Lawrence,*	523	E. M. Baker.	"	L. D. Cook and H. Green.
"	29—Roanoke,†	251	S. Baldwin.	"	Wiggins & Parsons.
"	30—John Wells,*	366	J. W. Hedges.	"	Thomas Brown.
Aug.	12—Thos. Dickason,*	454	W. Lowen.	"	Mulford & Sleight.
"	17—Sarah & Esther,†	157	S. Griffing.	S. A. O.	Ireland, Wells & Carpenter.
"	23—Acasta,†	286	D. B. Harlow.	N. W. C.	John Budd.
"	29—Ontario 1st,*	368	J. M. Green.	"	S. & B. Hunting & Co.
"	30—Barbara,†	260	H. French.	S. A. O.	Charles P. Dering.
"	31—Nimrod,†	280	W. F. Fowler.	"	Charles P. Dering.
"	31—Washington,†	236	G. W. Corwin.	I. O.	Wiggins & Parsons.
Sept.	4—Neva,*	363	N. Case.	N. W. C.	Ireland, Wells & Carpenter.
"	18—Martha,*	359	D. R. Drake.	"	L. D. Cook and H. Green.
"	19—Levant,*	382	J. M. Havens.	"	Nathan N. Tiffany.
"	19—Noble 2d,†	273	W. B. Howes.	S. A. O.	Charles P. Dering.
"	28—Wiscasset,*	380	W. H. Payne.	N. W. C.	S. & B. Hunting & Co.
Oct.	5—Italy,*	298	F. Weld.	"	David G. Floyd.
"	10—Phoenix,*	314	S. P. Briggs.	"	L. D. Cook and H. Green.
"	14—Salem,*	470	D. Hand.	"	Mulford & Sleight.
"	31—Oscar,†	369	I. Ludlow.	"	Hunting Cooper.
Nov.	7—Lucy Ann,*	309	E. P. Brown.	"	Wiggins, Parsons & Cooke.

34 departures in 1844. 11,707

## LIST OF VESSELS

Engaged in the Whale Fishery, from the District of Sag Harbor, which have not returned during the past year, and are now at sea, January 1, 1845.

Time sl'g.	Name.	Tons.	Master.	Destination.	Managing owners & ag'ts.
1842.					
Sept.	2—Henry Lee,*	409	L. L. Bennet.	N. W. C.	S. & B. Hunting & Co.
Oct.	7—John Jay,*	494	W. J. Rogers.	"	N. & G. Howell.
"	7—Tuscany,*	299	J. Godby.	"	John Budd.

\* Ships.

† Barques.





## STEAMBOAT, RAILROAD, AND CANAL STATISTICS.

## MADISON AND INDIANAPOLIS RAILROAD.

The following extract from the report of a committee appointed by the directors, exhibits the history and condition of the road, its income and business, and future prospects, very satisfactorily:—

The Madison and Indianapolis railroad was one of the works embraced in the general system of internal improvements adopted by the state, in the year 1836. It was then located from Madison to Columbus, 45 miles; and afterwards to Edinburgh, 11 miles further. The expenditures of the state on the road, between the years 1836 and 1842, were \$1,624,291 93; of which \$62,493 21 were received from tolls, and the balance from the state treasury.

The legislature of 1842, finding the public works unprofitable and expensive, with no funds to complete them, and dull prospects from them if completed, passed the act providing for their extension by private companies, as herein, under which this association has been organized. By virtue of its provisions, about \$80,000, mostly in land, at cash prices, was subscribed as stock, in April and May, 1842. In June, directors were chosen, and the board organized—in July, the first thirteen miles north of Griffith's were put under contract; and, soon after, the next four, to Columbus. The road was completed, June 1, 1843, three miles, to Scipio; September 1, seven miles further, to Elizabethtown; February 1, 1844, four and a half miles, to Clifty; and July 3, two and a half miles further, to Columbus.

The company took possession of the road on the 20th February, 1843; from which, until the 3d February, 1844, the receipts from tolls were \$22,110 33; of which \$5,918 92 were paid for expenses of transportation, \$3,342 28 for repairs of road, \$2,641 44 for repairs of machinery, \$119 88 for contingencies, and the balance, \$8,638 70, was profits applied to the construction of the road, and added to the capital stock. The receipts in 1843-44, have been as follows:—

February 20, 1843, to March 31,	\$1,551 98	January, 1844,.....	3,499 66
April, ".....	1,449 53	March, ".....	3,109 96
May, ".....	1,256 84	April, ".....	2,477 36
June, ".....	1,221 58	May, ".....	3,055 78
July, ".....	1,304 82	June, ".....	2,278 36
August, ".....	1,205 62	July, ".....	2,173 09
September, ".....	1,444 87	August, ".....	2,772 20
October, ".....	2,183 27	September 28, ".....	2,854 80
November, ".....	3,083 89	October, ".....	3,309 84
December, ".....	3,868 09	November, ".....	4,554 67

The ordinary expenses of the road, for each working day, have been, for some time, about \$36; and, when two engines are run, \$10 more. For the success which has heretofore attended the association, much credit is due to N. B. Palmer, Esq., late president and superintendent, who voluntarily retired from those stations on 1st of July last.

## STEAM BETWEEN NEW YORK AND LIVERPOOL.

The Great Western Steam-ship Company's steam-ship Great Western, Capt. Mathews, and their new iron steam-ship Great Britain, Capt. Hosken, are appointed to sail during the year 1845, as follows:—

FROM LIVERPOOL.		FROM NEW YORK.	
Great Western,.....	Saturday, 29th March.	Great Western,.....	Thursday, 24th April.
Great Western,.....	" 17th May.	Great Western,.....	" 12th June.
Great Western,.....	" 5th July.	Great Western,.....	" 31st July.
Great Britain,.....	" 2d August.	Great Britain,.....	Saturday, 30th August.
Great Western,.....	" 23d August.	Great Western,.....	Thursday, 18th Sept.
Great Britain,.....	" 27th Sept.	Great Britain,.....	Saturday, 25th Oct.
Great Western,.....	" 11th Oct.	Great Western,.....	Thursday, 6th Nov.
Great Britain,.....	" 22d Nov.	Great Britain,.....	Saturday, 20th Dec.

## PASSAGES OF THE GREAT WESTERN.

The following details of the seventy passages of the Great Western across the Atlantic, form an interesting record connected with the rise and progress of steam navigation:—

FROM BRISTOL OR LIVERPOOL, TO NEW YORK, VIZ: FROM KING-ROAD, OR THE DOCKS, TO THE WHARF—TIME BY THE CHRONOMETER.

Sailed. 1838.	Arrived. 1838.	Time.		Yearly average.	Dis. run in naut. miles.	Pass'n- gers.	Yearly av'ge.
		D.	H.				
April 8.....	April 23.....	15	10		3,111	7	
June 2.....	June 17.....	14	16		3,140	57	
July 21.....	August 5.....	14	18		3,043	131	
September 8.....	September 24.....	16	9		3,050	143	
October 27.....	November 15.....	19	0		3,100	107	
				16 1½			89
1839.	1839.						
January 28.....	February 16.....	18	20		3,114	104	
March 23.....	April 14.....	22	6		3,350	110	
May 18.....	May 31.....	13	12		3,086	107	
July 6.....	July 22.....	16	0		3,030	114	
August 24.....	September 10.....	16	20		3,025	113	
October 19.....	November 2.....	14	22		3,021	137	
				17 1½			114.1
1840.	1840.						
February 20.....	March 7.....	15	17		3,058	77	
April 15.....	May 3.....	17	20		3,093	100	
June 4.....	June 18.....	14	18		3,073	85	
July 25.....	August 9.....	14	23		3,018	97	
September 12.....	September 27.....	15	7		3,049	54	
November 7.....	November 24.....	16	12		3,025	40	
				15 20			75.3
1841.	1841.						
April 8.....	April 23.....	{ 15 12 to an- }			3,096	44	
		{ chor outside. }					
May 27.....	June 10.....	14	12		3,033	42	
July 14.....	July 29.....	15	2		3,014	98	
September 1.....	September 16.....	15	10		3,036	111	
October 23, } 1.15, P. M.... }	{ Nov'r 8, mid- } { night..... }	16	12		3,035	127	
				15 9½			84.2
1842.	1842.						
Ap. 2, 1.30, P. M.	April 17, noon....	15	4		3,093	69	
May 21, 5, P. M.	June 4, 2.25, P. M.	14	2½		3,020	64	
July 16, 1, P. M.	July 30.....	14	1½		3,028	65	
Sept. 3, 5, P. M.	Sept. 17, 10, P. M.	14	10		3,020	97	
Oct. 22, 3, P. M.	Nov. 6, 6½ P. M....	15	8		3,036	109	
				14 15			80.4
1843.	1843.						
April 29.....	May 11, midnight.	12	18		3,068	60	
June 17.....	July 1.....	13	16		3,027	67	
August 5.....	August 21.....	15	16		3,025	124	
September 23....	October 7.....	14	4		3,020	136	
				14 1½			96.3
1844.	1844.						
June 22, 3.15 P. M.	July 6, midnight.	14	20		2,890	33	
Aug. 17, 12.45 } P. M..... }	August 31, 6, P. M.	14	5		2,966	135	
Oct. 12, 11 A. M.	Oct. 26, 9.30, P. M.	14	10		2,934	139	
				14 12			102
34 voyages.....		527	10			3,113	
Average.....				15 12		91	

## FROM BRISTOL TO MADEIRA AND NEW YORK.

Sailed.	Arrived.	Time.		1 day 4 hrs. at Madeira.	Dis. run in naut. miles.	Pass- en- gers.
1843.	1843.	D.	H.			
February 11.....	March 12.....	29	1		4,698	52

FROM NEW YORK TO BRISTOL OR LIVERPOOL, VIZ: FROM THE WHARF TO KING-ROAD, OR THE DOCKS—TIME BY THE CHRONOMETER.

Sailed.	Arrived.	Time.		Yearly average.	Dis. run in naut. miles.	Pass'n- gers.	Yearly av'age.
1838.	1838.	D.	H.				
May 7.....	May 22.....	14	0		3,218	66	
June 25.....	July 8.....	12	14		3,099	91	
August 16.....	August 30.....	13	2		3,058	87	
October 4.....	October 16.....	12	12		3,068	127	
November 23....	December 7.....	13	16		3,152	80	
				13 4			90.1
1839.	1839.						
February 25.....	March 12.....	14	12		3,133	36	
April 22.....	May 7.....	15	0		3,332	113	
June 13.....	June 26.....	13	6		3,033	115	
August 1.....	Aug. 13, 4.30 A.M.	12	10½		3,067	64	
September 21....	October 4.....	13	0		3,034	43	
November 16....	November 30.....	13	10		3,038	31	
				13 17			67.
1840.	1840.						
March 19.....	April 2.....	14	4		3,101	52	
May 9.....	May 23.....	14	2		3,076	137	
July 1.....	July 14.....	13	12		3,138	152	
August 18.....	August 31.....	13	1		3,030	69	
October 10.....	October 23.....	13	6		3,028	97	
December 9.....	December 23.....	14	9		3,071	70	
				13 21			96.1
1841.	1841.						
May 1.....	May 14, 7.30 P.M.	13	1		3,208	94	
June 19.....	July 3.....	14	2		3,109	81	
August 7.....	August 20.....	12	10		3,081	68	
September 25....	October 8.....	12	13		3,063	43	
November 23....	December 6.....	13	5		3,049	30	
				13 1½			62.4
1842.	1842.						
April 28.....	May 11, 4 A.M. 1 h.	{ 12 7½ to light vessel }			3,248	77	
June 16, 2.30 P.M.	June 29, 7.30 A.M.	12	12		3,225	99	
Aug. 11, 2.15 P.M.	Aug. 24, 2 P.M.	12	19		3,106	70	
Sept. 29, 2 P.M.	Oct. 12, 11 P.M.	13	4		3,048	35	
November 17....	Nov. 30, 10 P.M.	12	15		3,077	29	
				12 16			62.
1843.	1843.						
May 25.....	June 8.....	13	8		3,116	126	
July 13.....	July 26.....	12	21		3,106	104	
August 31.....	September 14.....	13	8		3,090	73	
October 19.....	November 1.....	12	17		3,069	99	
				13 1½			100.2
1844.	1844.						
July 20, 3.15 P.M.	Aug. 4, 12 noon..	14	20		2,891	66	
Sept. 14, 3.15 P.M.	Sept. 29, 12 midn't.	15	8		3,231	30	
Nov. 9, 2.30 P.M.	Nov. 23, 11.45 A.M.	13	21		2,791	31	
				14 8			42.
34 voyages.....		454	19		2,585		
Average.....				13 9		76	

## FROM NEW YORK TO LIVERPOOL.

Sailed.	Arrived.	Time.		Dis. run in	Pas-
1843.	1843.	D.	H.	naut. miles.	seng'rs.
March 16.....	April 1.....	15	11	3,140	24

Total distance run, including passages to London, Milford, and Liverpool, 256,000 statute miles; and the average speed outward,  $9\frac{1}{2}$  miles per hour; homeward,  $11\frac{1}{4}$  miles.

## OPENING AND CLOSING OF THE NEW YORK CANALS.

The following table shows the date of opening and closing the canals, and the number of days of navigation in each year, from 1824 to the present:—

Years.	Navigation opened.	Navigation closed.	No. ds. of nav.	Years.	Navigation opened.	Navigation closed.	No. ds. of nav.
1824,.....	April 30	Dec. 4	219	1835,....	April 15	Nov. 30	230
1825,.....	" 12	" 5	238	1836,....	" 25	" 26	216
1826,.....	" 20	" 18	243	1837,....	" 20	Dec. 9	234
1827,.....	" 22	" 18	241	1838,....	" 12	Nov. 25	228
1828,.....	Mar. 27	" 20	269	1839,....	" 20	Dec. 16	241
1829,.....	May 2	" 17	210	1840,....	" 20	" 3	228
1830,.....	April 20	" 17	242	1841,....	" 32	Nov. 30	221
1831,.....	" 16	" 1	230	1842,....	" 20	" 28	222
1832,.....	" 25	" 21	241	1843,....	May 1	" 30	214
1833,.....	" 19	" 12	238	1844,....	April 15	" 26	222
1834,.....	" 17	" 12	240	1845,....	" 15	" ...	.....

## STATISTICS OF BRITISH STEAM NAVIGATION.

The following table, compiled from official documents, shows the number and tonnage of steam vessels belonging to England, Scotland, and Ireland, and the total number and tonnage belonging to the United Kingdom in each year, from 1814 to 1843, inclusive:—

Years.	ENGLAND.		SCOTLAND.		IRELAND.		U. KINGDOM.	
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.
1814,...	...	.....	1	69	...	.....	1	69
1815,...	3	209	5	429	...	.....	8	638
1816,...	5	315	7	632	...	.....	12	947
1817,...	7	462	6	514	1	63	14	1,039
1818,...	10	1,586	8	683	1	63	19	2,332
1819,...	11	1,459	11	825	2	264	24	2,548
1820,...	17	1,639	14	1,127	3	252	34	3,018
1821,...	29	3,377	26	3,344	4	330	59	6,051
1822,...	52	5,322	28	2,701	5	434	85	8,457
1823,...	69	7,527	26	2,347	6	487	101	10,361
1824,...	80	8,642	29	2,682	5	409	114	11,733
1825,...	112	12,280	36	3,292	3	192	151	15,764
1826,...	162	16,791	51	4,496	15	2,899	228	24,186
1827,...	173	17,734	59	5,390	21	4,194	253	27,318
1828,...	191	18,367	56	4,903	25	4,740	272	28,010
1829,...	203	19,085	57	5,399	27	5,017	287	29,501
1830,...	203	18,831	61	5,687	31	5,491	295	30,009
1831,...	223	20,304	62	5,777	35	6,181	320	32,262
1832,...	235	20,813	73	7,205	40	7,220	348	35,238
1833,...	268	23,290	71	7,075	43	7,757	382	38,122
1834,...	301	27,059	77	8,187	46	8,183	424	43,429
1835,...	344	30,351	85	9,833	68	12,583	497	52,767
1836,...	388	34,314	95	11,588	71	13,460	554	59,362
1837,...	422	37,240	109	13,368	87	18,437	618	69,045
1838,...	484	43,877	105	13,113	84	17,694	673	74,684
1839,...	517	45,160	117	15,704	86	18,376	720	79,240
1840,...	560	50,491	129	19,497	79	17,551	768	87,539
1841,...	585	59,040	126	19,133	79	17,505	790	95,678
1842,...	615	69,699	133	19,925	79	18,303	827	107,927
1843,...	646	72,042	128	19,422	81	17,824	855	109,288



Number and Tonnage of British Steam Vessels built and registered in each year, from 1814 to 1843.

Years.	ENGLAND.		SCOTLAND.		IRELAND.		U. KINGDOM.	
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Ton'ge.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.
1814,...	.....	.....	5	285	.....	.....	5	285
1815,...	2	161	7	625	.....	.....	9	786
1816,...	4	298	4	270	.....	.....	8	568
1817,...	4	227	3	194	.....	.....	7	421
1818,...	3	1,124	3	216	.....	.....	6	1,340
1819,...	2	175	2	167	.....	.....	4	342
1820,...	3	102	4	403	1	150	8	655
1821,...	12	1,463	10	1,545	.....	.....	22	3,008
1822,...	23	2,080	4	369	.....	.....	27	2,449
1823,...	17	2,344	2	125	.....	.....	19	2,469
1824,...	12	1,687	5	547	.....	.....	17	2,234
1825,...	19	2,600	5	403	.....	.....	24	3,003
1826,...	50	5,920	22	2,718	.....	.....	72	8,638
1827,...	18	2,264	9	994	1	118	28	3,376
1828,...	25	1,687	5	352	.....	.....	30	2,039
1829,...	13	1,080	3	671	.....	.....	16	1,751
1830,...	10	931	8	814	.....	.....	18	1,745
1831,...	24	2,054	7	695	.....	.....	31	2,749
1832,...	19	943	14	1,908	.....	.....	33	2,851
1833,...	27	1,964	6	964	.....	.....	33	2,928
1834,...	26	3,453	10	1,675	.....	.....	36	5,128
1835,...	63	6,844	23	4,080	.....	.....	86	10,924
1836,...	43	5,924	20	2,834	.....	.....	63	8,758
1837,...	53	6,223	22	4,488	3	958	78	11,669
1838,...	66	6,286	18	3,263	.....	.....	84	9,549
1839,...	43	2,885	18	2,968	1	286	62	6,139
1840,...	59	6,186	16	4,110	.....	.....	75	10,296
1841,...	38	3,158	9	7,683	1	342	48	11,363
1842,...	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	58	13,716
1843,...	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	45	6,063

Showing the Number and Tonnage of Steam Vessels employed in the Coasting Trade and Foreign Trade, entered inwards from all parts, distinguishing British from Foreign ships, including their repeated voyages.

Years.	BRITISH STEAM VESSELS INWARDS.				FOREIGN.	
	Coastwise.		Foreign.		Inwards.	
	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
1820,.....	9	505	.....	.....	.....	.....
1821,.....	188	20,028	.....	.....	.....	.....
1822,.....	215	31,596	159	14,497	10	520
1823,.....	434	55,146	129	8,942	7	364
1824,.....	888	124,073	139	10,893	6	312
1825,.....	1,666	257,734	186	16,155	11	652
1826,.....	2,810	452,995	334	32,631	38	2,206
1827,.....	4,404	737,020	443	50,285	74	4,558
1828,.....	5,591	914,414	482	52,679	58	3,406
1829,.....	5,792	978,981	497	51,754	3	405
1830,.....	6,796	1,073,506	560	62,613	42	7,781
1831,.....	7,072	1,161,012	537	65,946	85	11,345
1832,.....	7,769	1,256,805	537	71,493	74	7,000
1833,.....	9,070	1,513,684	681	98,224	51	3,708
1834,.....	10,046	1,609,324	988	146,720	12	3,164
1835,.....	11,227	1,849,409	1,015	170,151	18	5,058
1836,.....	13,003	2,238,137	1,122	195,722	50	10,948
1837,.....	15,481	2,671,577	1,123	217,640	60	12,504
1838,.....	17,771	2,959,125	1,983	286,264	441	54,401
1839,.....	15,556	2,926,521	2,293	356,595	511	70,773
1840,.....	15,464	2,913,505	2,057	321,651	471	1,626
1841,.....	15,136	2,903,784	2,182	360,675	478	55,832
1842,.....	15,115	2,961,970	2,113	330,038	492	69,426
1843,.....	14,633	3,001,431	2,439	379,909	533	77,225

*Showing the Number of Steam Vessels employed in the Coasting and Foreign Trade, (including their repeated voyages,) and of the proportion per cent of the Coasting and Foreign Trade performed by Steam Vessels, at intervals of three years, commencing 1821, and the Number of Foreign Steam Vessels employed, and the proportion per cent of the Foreign Trade performed by them.*

Years.	BRITISH STEAM VESSELS.				FOR'GN S. VESSELS.	
	Coastwise. Ships.	Prop. per ct. Ships.	Foreign. Ships.	Prop. per ct. Ships.	Ships.	Prop. per ct. Ships.
1821,.....	188	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
1824,.....	888	.697	139	1.188	6	.107
1827,.....	4,404	.....	443	3.373	74	1.223
1830,.....	6,796	5.691	560	4.133	42	.783
1833,.....	9,070	7.765	681	5.190	51	.926
1836,.....	12,988	10.499	1,122	7.820	50	.701
1839,.....	15,556	11.947	2,293	13.002	511	4.948
1842,.....	15,115	11.827	2,113	10.575	492	5.826
1843,.....	14,633	10.934	2,439	11.437	533	6.031

NOTE.—The great apparent increase in the number of foreign steam vessels, is from the number of passage vessels. For example, there arrived, during the year 1841, 478 foreign steamers entered inwards, of which 334 were at the port of Dover, and but 72 at the port of London; whilst, of British steam vessels from foreign ports, 621 ships, 149,748 tons, entered inwards at the port of London, and 940 ships, 59,081 tons, entered inwards at the port of Dover.

## NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

### THE BREAKWATER AT CARACCAS.

THE following, translated from the Caraccas Liberal, of the 18th of January, 1845, will be read with interest:—"This work, now being constructed in the harbor of La Guayra, is not yet finished, but its beneficial results are already felt. Not only do small coasting vessels, which formerly had to anchor at a distance from the wharf, and discharge their cargoes by means of lighters, now lie alongside of it, but also vessels of a larger class, that require greater depth of water, approach near the wharf. On the 15th of January was seen in La Guayra, for the first time since the conquest, an American schooner from Charleston, coming up to the wharf, and, by means of planks, unloading all her cargo, without using lighters, or exposing it to be wet with salt water, and at a great saving of time and expense, notwithstanding the breakwater has reached but two-thirds of its length, and what is done is not in the state of perfection that it will be when it is finished. The advantages which this work is already producing, and will yet produce, both in foreign and native commerce, are incalculable. There can be no doubt that the value of the goods which were formerly damaged and lost in the wretched road of La Guayra, and the expenses that will hereafter be saved, will amount in a very short time to a much greater sum than the cost of this most important work.

### SEA LIGHT AT BRUSTERORT, PRUSSIA.

The sea light at Brusterort, kingdom of Prussia, on the Baltic, has undergone an improved alteration, in consequence of which, two stationary lights have been formed, occupying the same place, and being of the same height as the former; each of which, however, will be visible, in clear weather, at a distance of two and a half German miles, and within a circle of 101 degrees of the horizon, from W. to N. to N. N. E. Both lanterns will be lit, for the first time, in the evening of the 1st of October this year, and after that will be kept burning from the setting to the rising of the sun. (Dated Berlin, September 15th, 1844.)

## COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

## EXPORTS TO FOREIGN COUNTRIES ADJOINING THE U. STATES.

THE following law of the United States, allowing drawbacks upon foreign merchandise exported in the original packages to Chihuahua, and Santa Fe, in Mexico, and to the British North American Provinces, adjoining the United States, was passed at the session of Congress just closed, and approved by the President.

## DRAWBACK ALLOWED ON GOODS EXPORTED TO THE TERRITORIES ADJOINING THE UNITED STATES.

1. That any imported merchandise which has been entered, and the duties paid or secured according to law, for drawback, may be exported to Chihuahua, in Mexico, or Santa Fe, in New Mexico, either by the rout of the Arkansas river through Van Buren, or by the rout of the Red river through Fulton, or by the rout of the Missouri river through Independence.

2. That all the merchandise so exported shall be in the original packages as imported, a true invoice whereof, signed by the exporter, shall be made, to the satisfaction of the collector, describing accurately each package, with its contents and all the marks upon it, exclusive of the name of the exporter, the place of destination, and the rout by which it is to be exported; all which shall be inscribed thereon. Upon which invoice the collector shall certify that he is fully convinced the same is true, that the goods are in the original packages as imported, that they are duly entered for drawback, and to be exported by the owner, (naming him,) to either of the places aforesaid, (naming it,) and by one of the aforesaid routes, (naming it.)

3. That upon the arrival of such goods at either of the places in Arkansas or Missouri above named, they shall be again inspected and compared with the invoice and certificate aforesaid, by an officer of the United States, who shall, if fully convinced that the several packages are identical, having remained unbroken and unchanged, also certify on said invoice the facts, in such form as the Secretary of the Treasury shall prescribe.

4. That upon the arrival of any such goods at Santa Fe or Chihuahua, they, with the invoice and certificates aforesaid, shall be submitted to the inspection of the Consul of the United States, or such agent as the President may appoint for that purpose; who, if fully convinced thereof, shall, in such form as the Secretary of the Treasury shall prescribe, certify upon said invoice that the goods have arrived there in the original packages as imported, without change or alteration, and have been exported from the United States in good faith, to be disposed of and consumed in a foreign country.

5. That if the exporter shall give bond, with satisfactory sureties, in thrice the amount of duties, that the said merchandise by him exported has been delivered at either of the places aforesaid without the United States, in good faith, to be sold and consumed there, and shall also produce said invoice, with the regular certificates thereon, the collector shall thereupon pay to him the usual drawback allowed by law.

6. That the Secretary of the Treasury shall appoint inspectors to reside at each of the following places, to wit:—Van Buren, Fulton, and Independence, above named, or such other places in Missouri as the Secretary of the Treasury shall designate, who shall each have a salary of two hundred and fifty dollars, and make a full report of all the trade that passes under their inspection, to the Secretary of the treasury, semi-annually, giving an account of the number of packages, the kind of goods, the value, and the names of the exporters.

7. That any imported merchandise which has been entered, and the duties paid or secured according to law, for drawback, may be exported to the British North American provinces adjoining the United States; and the ports of Plattsburgh, in the district of Champlain; Burlington, in the district of Vermont; Sackett's Harbor, Oswego, and Ogdensburgh, in the district of Oswegatchie; Rochester, in the district of Genesee; Buffalo and Erie, in the district of Presqu'isle; Cleveland, in the district of Cuyahoga; Sandusky, and Detroit, together with such ports on the sea-board, from which merchandise may now be exported for the benefit of drawback, are hereby declared ports from whence foreign goods, wares, and merchandise, on which the import duty has been paid, or secured to be paid, may be exported to ports in the adjoining British provinces, and to which ports foreign goods, wares, and merchandise may be transported inland, or by water, from the port of original importation, under existing provisions of law, to be thence exported for the benefit of drawback: Provided, that such other ports situated on the frontiers of the United States, adjoining the British North American provinces, as may hereafter be found expedient, may

have extended to them the like privileges, on the recommendation of the Secretary of the treasury, and proclamation duly made by the President of the United States, specially designating the ports to which the aforesaid privileges are to be extended.

8. That all laws now in force in relation to the allowance of drawback of duties upon goods imported into the United States and exported therefrom, and in relation to the conditions and evidence on which such a drawback is to be paid, shall be applicable to the drawback allowed by this act. And, in addition to existing provisions on the subject, to entitle exporters of goods to the drawback allowed by this act, they shall produce to the collector of the port from which such goods, wares, and merchandise were exported, the certificate, under seal of the collector or other chief revenue officer of the port to which the said goods, wares, and merchandise were exported in the said adjoining provinces: which certificate shall be endorsed upon a duplicate or certified copy of the manifest granted at the time of such exportation, and shall state that the same identical goods contained in the said manifest had been landed at such foreign port, and duly entered at the custom-house there, and that the duties imposed by the laws in force at such port upon the said goods had been paid, or secured to be paid, in full; and the said exporters shall also produce the affidavit of the master of the vessel in which the said goods were exported, that the same identical goods specified in the manifest granted at the time of such exportation had been carried to the port named in the clearance or manifest, and had been landed and entered at the custom-house, and that the duties imposed thereon at the said foreign port had been paid, or secured to be paid; and that the goods referred to in the certificate of the collector or chief revenue officer of such foreign port herein mentioned, were the same identical goods described in the manifest aforesaid, and in the said affidavit.

9. That no goods, wares, or merchandise, exported according to the provisions of this act, shall be voluntarily landed or brought into the United States; and on being so landed or brought into the United States, they shall be forfeited; and the same proceeding shall be had for their condemnation, and the distribution of the proceeds of their sales, as in other cases of forfeiture of goods illegally imported. And every person concerned in the voluntary landing or bringing such goods into the United States, shall be liable to a penalty of four hundred dollars.

10. That from the amount of duties upon any goods, wares and merchandise imported into the United States, and which shall be exported according to the provisions of this act, there shall be deducted two and a half per centum of such amount, which shall be retained by the respective collectors for the use of the United States, and the residue only shall be the drawback to be paid to the exporters of such goods, wares, and merchandise.

11. That the Secretary of the treasury is hereby fully authorized to prescribe such rules and regulations, not inconsistent with the laws of the United States, as he may deem necessary to carry into effect the provisions of this act, and to prevent the illegal re-importation of any goods, wares or merchandise which shall have been exported as herein provided; and that all acts, or parts of acts inconsistent with the provisions of this act be, and the same is hereby repealed.

#### INLAND NAVIGATION OF THE UNITED STATES.

The following act of the United States extending the jurisdiction of the District Courts to certain cases upon the lakes and navigable waters connecting the same, was passed at the last session of Congress, and approved by the President, February 26th, 1845.

*Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled,* That the district courts of the United States shall have, possess and exercise the same jurisdiction in matters of contract and tort arising in, upon, or concerning steamboats and other vessels of twenty tons burden and upwards, enrolled and licensed in the coasting trade, and at the time employed in the business of commerce and navigation between ports and places in different states and territories upon the lakes and navigable waters connecting said lakes, as is now possessed and exercised by the said courts in cases of the like steamboats employed and other vessels employed in navigation and commerce upon the high seas or tide-waters within the admiralty and maritime jurisdiction of the United States; and in all suits brought in such courts in all such matters of contract or tort, the remedies, and the forms of process, and the modes of proceeding, shall be the same as are or may be used by such courts in cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction; and the maritime law of the United States, so far as the same is or may be applicable thereto, shall constitute the rule of decision in such suits, in the same manner,



and to the same extent, and with the same equities as it now does in cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction; saving, however, to the parties the right of trial by jury of all facts put in issue in such suits, where either party shall require it; and saving, also, to the parties the right of a concurrent remedy at common law, where it is competent to give it, and any concurrent remedy which may be given by the state laws where such steamer or other vessel is employed in such business of commerce and navigation.

#### COMMERCIAL INTERCOURSE WITH MIGNELON AND ST. PIERRE.

The following act regulating commercial intercourse with the Islands of Mignelon and St. Pierre, was passed at the last session of Congress, and approved by the President, March 3d, 1845.

That all French vessels coming directly from the islands of Mignelon and St. Pierre, either in ballast or laden with articles the growth or manufacture of either of said islands, and which are permitted to be exported therefrom in American vessels, may be admitted into the ports of the United States on payment of no higher duties on tonnage, or on their cargoes aforesaid, than are imposed on American vessels, and on like cargoes imported in American vessels: Provided, that this act shall not take effect until the President of the United States shall have received satisfactory information that similar privileges have been allowed to American vessels and their cargoes at said islands by the government of France, and shall have made proclamation accordingly; and whenever said privileges shall have been revoked or annulled, the President is hereby authorized, by proclamation, to suspend the operations of this act.

#### QUEBEC MERCHANTS' TARIFF,

WHEN NO AGREEMENT EXISTS TO THE CONTRARY.

For selling consignments, from ports or places out of the Canadas, without guarantee,.....	5 per cent.
For selling consignments, in ports or places in the Canadas, without guarantee,.....	2½ "
For del credere, or guarantee of debts,.....	2½ "
For purchasing, shipping, and forwarding merchandise to ports or places out of the Canadas,.....	5 "
For purchasing, shipping, and forwarding merchandise to ports or places in the Canadas, when in funds,.....	2½ "
Otherwise,.....	5 "
For purchasing bills of exchange, stocks, or specie, with funds in hand,.....	½ "
For purchasing bills of exchange, stocks, or specie, taking reimbursements by bills or drafts,.....	1½ "
For endorsing bills of exchange,.....	2½ "
For collecting debts, and remitting the proceeds without endorsement of bills,.....	5 "
For receiving and remitting bank dividends,.....	1 "
For selling or purchasing vessels,.....	5 "
For chartering ships,.....	2½ "
For collecting or procuring freight, and on ships' disbursements,.....	5 "
For effecting insurance against loss by fire, on amount of premium,.....	5 "
For adjusting losses generally with insurance companies, on amount recovered,.....	2½ "
For receiving and paying moneys, from which no other commission is derived,.....	1 "
For receiving and forwarding goods from abroad, according to the bulk of each package, and the trouble attending it, per package,.....	6d. a 2s. 6d.
And on the amount of the responsibilities incurred by such agency,.....	2½ per ct.
On sale by auction, for the benefit of the underwriters, exclusive of the auctioneer's charge,.....	5 "

N. B.—The above commissions to be exclusive of storage, brokerage, and every other charge actually incurred or disbursed.

The risk of loss by fire, unless insurance be ordered, and of robbery, theft, and other unavoidable occurrences, if the usual care be taken to secure the property, is in all cases to be borne by the proprietor of the goods.

On all commissions withdrawn, 2½ per cent commission to be charged.

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## MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

### EXTENSION OF AMERICAN COMMERCE.

WHILE promoting the objects of our publication by adverting to a recent movement for extending American commercial intercourse, we have the additional satisfaction of rendering justice to a worthy legislator—the representative of the Greene and Columbia district of the State of New York.

The late appointment of a consul to Japan, renders it appropriate now to refer particularly to the condition of that empire; and we could not present facts in a better form than that in which they were submitted to Congress, by the Hon. ZADOK PRATT, when ineffectually endeavoring to procure a liberal appropriation with Japan and Corea.

After premising that “it is important to the general interests of the United States that steady and persevering efforts should be made for the extension of American commerce, connected as that commerce is with the agriculture and manufactures of our country.” Col. PRATT, in a memorandum submitted to the House of Representatives on the 15th of February, remarked that—

“The importance of intercourse with the Japanese empire has led to various attempts, by different nations, at sundry periods within the last three hundred years. Though all these attempts, excepting the Dutch, have proved abortive, that is not an adequate reason for our refraining from making a vigorous effort now.

“The Chinese Empire, long barricaded against commercial intercourse or diplomatic relations with other countries, is now measurably thrown open for the enterprise of Americans, as among ‘the most favored nations,’ and there is much reason for believing that a judicious embassy, characterized by the justice which should ever sway our government, will succeed in establishing intercourse with Japan and Corea that may be largely beneficial to the American people.

“Though Japan and Corea are much less extensive and populous than China, (with which we have just concluded an advantageous treaty,) both countries are well worthy of attention from the American people. Debarred from intercourse with Japan, the remainder of the world has paid less attention to that empire than its character may justly demand. With a population exceeding fifty millions, (about thrice as numerous as the whole population of the United States,) the Japanese empire combines a degree of civilization and power that may well render it respectable and formidable among the nations of the earth. That civilization, even judging from our imperfect knowledge concerning it, places Japan in advance of several countries with which our government now maintains diplomatic and commercial relations. The industry of the Japanese is said to be comparable with that of the Chinese; and many of the leading arts of useful life are practised by them with a degree of success unsurpassed in some of the European nations with which we are on terms of political intercourse. Though nearly all foreign trade is forbidden, the internal commerce of Japan (the trade between its large cities and populous provinces) is very extensive; the intercourse between the great markets and all sections of the empire being facilitated by numerous coasting vessels and well conditioned roads.

“The power of the government may be estimated by the statement that the army ordinarily consists of about a hundred thousand infantry and twenty thousand cavalry, which force is increased in warfare to more than four hundred thousand men. And as for agriculture, where is there in the world a country more industriously cultivated? The few travellers who have ever ‘penetrated the interior,’ concur in stating that the soil of Japan, though not naturally fertile, has been so much improved as to be rendered extremely productive; ‘and the face of the country, even on the mountain sides, (which are formed into terraces, as in some parts of Italy and Persia,) is so diligently cultivated, that it would be difficult to find in the country a single nook of untilled land, even the dry summits of the mountains.’ Jeddo, the chief town of the empire, is reputed to be one of the largest cities in the world. Little as we know of Japan, in comparison with our knowledge of other countries, we know enough of it to render us desirous of a closer acquaintance.

“Corea also possesses a large population—estimated at fifteen millions; and assimilates in character to the Chinese empire, with which it is slightly connected in political relations. The Coreans and Chinese, it may be added, are now nearly the only foreign-

ers with whom the Japanese allow any business intercourse, however limited. Though we cannot expect anything like equal advantages from intercourse with Corea, it seems desirable to include that country along with Japan in the projected mission, as negotiations with both countries may be despatched with little additional expense by the same ambassador.

"With the successful issue of the late mission to the Chinese empire, we may well feel encouraged to attempt an extension of our commercial intercourse with other nations nearly similarly situated; and where can we now find a better field for enterprise than is furnished by the countries included in the proposed mission—the empire of Japan and the kingdom of Corea, with their aggregate population of sixty or seventy millions?

"The missions should be placed on a liberal basis. 'The day and the hour' have now arrived for turning the enterprise of our merchants and seamen into the harbors and markets of these long-secluded countries. Another year should not elapse before the American people may be able to rejoice in the knowledge that the 'star-spangled banner' is recognized as an ample passport and protection for all of our enterprising countrymen, who may be engaged in extending American commerce into the countries to which it is now proposed to despatch suitable diplomatic and commercial agents on behalf of our government."

### COUNTERFEIT GOLD SOVEREIGNS.

Messrs. Beebe & Parshall, brokers, of Wall-street, New York, sent a sovereign to R. M. Patterson, Esq., the superintendent of the United States Mint at Philadelphia, for examination, which proves to be a counterfeit, and a very dangerous one, in consequence of the difficulty of its detection. He says:—

"It bears the head of George IV., and the date 1824. It is of the full legal weight—123.3 grains. It has the proper color and texture, not only at the surface, but in the interior, as exhibited on cutting. It has the true diameter; and, though there is some excess in thickness, it is scarcely such as to attract attention. Its mechanical execution is so perfect, as to elude detection by an ordinary observer, even with the aid of a glass. There is, in fact, but one test, short of actual assay, by which it can be distinguished from the genuine piece; and it is, the trial by specific gravity. A genuine sovereign would show a specific gravity varying from 17.50 to 17.90. The piece in question gives but 16.22. On assay, it was found to be composed as follows:—

Gold,.....	803-1000ths.
Silver,.....	122-1000ths.
Copper,.....	72-1000ths.

"The value of the piece is \$4 26. The genuine sovereign yields, very uniformly, 915 $\frac{1}{2}$  thousandths of gold, and is worth from \$4 83 to \$4 86, according to weight. The profit to the maker, or loss to the holder of the false coin, is consequently 50 to 60 cents per piece, or 13 to 14 per cent. Counterfeiters are not usually content with such moderate gain; and it could only be made available by an operation on a large scale. There would seem, therefore, reason to apprehend that many such counterfeits have been made, and put in circulation. This is, however, the first that has come under our notice at the mint."

### MAYSVILLE HEMP MARKET.

Some idea of the importance of the little city of Maysville, Ky., as a business point, may be obtained from the fact that it is the most extensive hemp market in the Union. "We have ascertained," says the Eagle, "at some trouble, the number of tons of hemp arrived at and sold in this market, or shipped to eastern ports on producer's account, during the months of January, February, and March. The total amount for that period is a fraction over 1,699 tons, or in round numbers 1,700 tons, of which 40 were water-rotted. At \$60 per ton, which we have found upon an accurate calculation to be the average price during that time, at contract, as well as at ordinary sale, the sum total is presented of one hundred and two thousand dollars; most of which amount, in actual cash, has been disbursed in Maysville, by our own manufacturers, or by agents of other manufacturing houses at a distance, and commission merchants."

**CURIOSITIES OF TRADE.**

It is, says the *Philadelphia American*, a very generally admitted fact, that Gulf of Mexico risks are taken by our Insurance Offices at inadequate premiums. There has lately come to our knowledge the history of a successful speculation upon this moderation of the officers. A house in New York having a large quantity of merchandise, largely and hopelessly depreciated in value, shipped and re-shipped the goods between that port and New Orleans, well covered, adding at each trip the amount of the successive premiums. When this had reached about thirty per cent, the Insurance Company paid for the property. Will some of our casuists say if this was altogether fair?

The following story is told of a comb factory at Meriden, Connecticut:—"The proprietors one day put up a quantity of combs, of the first and second qualities, with American labels, and some of the third quality with English labels, and sent the whole to one of their customers in New York. A gentleman stepped into the store where they were for sale, and after examining the different qualities for some time, took up those with the English label, and said, 'Well, the English do make the best article after all.'"

**FIRST ARRIVAL OF SUGAR FROM THE UNITED STATES.**

The *Liverpool (Eng.) Times* says:—"On Sunday last, the American ship *Franconia* arrived in this port, bringing as part of her cargo twelve hogsheads of Louisiana sugar. This is the first arrival of American grown sugar in this country, but we suspect that it is only the beginning of a trade which will, in a few years, become a very considerable one, if the new sugar duties of Sir Robert Peel should pass in their present form. The sugar received by the *Franconia* must necessarily have been shipped before anything was known or suspected of the reduction of duties now proposed; and must, therefore, have been sent here for the purpose of ascertaining whether they could be imported with profit at a duty of 36s. per cwt.; so that, if there was any chance, whatever, of their succeeding under such a duty, they cannot fail to pay handsomely, now that the duty is reduced to 24s. per cwt. We feel no doubt that they will pay if they are at all well selected; for on Saturday last we saw samples of two other expected lots of American sugar, both of which had been examined by a sugar broker, who states that they will leave a handsome profit—at least 10 per cent—in this country, even if the price of sugar should fall to the full extent of the duty repealed. The prices, therefore, are no obstacle."

**MINERAL RESOURCES OF ALABAMA.**

The mineral resources in Alabama are of great variety and abundance, but as yet undeveloped. From the report of the committee on agriculture, at the late session of the legislature, we learn that there are five principal, and several other minor mines of gold and silver in Randolph county, producing about \$125,000 annually, and affording employment to 300 or 500 persons. In the same county, are inexhaustible beds of iron ore, which does not lose 25 per cent in smelting. Tallapoosa, too, is rich in gold and silver mines, and they afford employment to several hundred hands. Goldville is supported by one mine. Gold, too, has been found in Coosa, Talladega, and Chambers. There are iron foundries in Benton and Talladega. No doubt, were this rich mineral region examined by a scientific person, many valuable discoveries might be made. In Blount, nitre is found in abundance. This side of Tuscaloosa, coal is found in immense quantities, and in many other places. In Clarke, salt can be manufactured at or near Jackson. Iron ore, marble, granite, limestone, etc., are also found in this county. Lead ore, in large quantities, and of excellent quality, is found in the bed of the Tennessee, on the Muscle Shoals; and all these, and others, exist in many other sections of the state.



## THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*An Elementary Treatise on Mineralogy, comprising an Introduction to the Science.* By WILLIAM PHILLIPS, F. L. S., etc., etc., Honorary Member of the Cambridge and Yorkshire Philosophical Societies. Fifth edition, from the fourth London edition, by ROBERT ALLAN; containing the Latest Discoveries in American and Foreign Mineralogy. With Numerous Additions to the Introduction. By FRANCIS ALGER, Member of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences; of the National Institute for the Promotion of Science, etc., etc. Boston: William D. Ticknor & Co.

This elementary treatise on mineralogy has passed through five editions in England, where we know, from good authority, that it is regarded as the best and most useful treatise in the language. It embraces, of course, the entire labors of Mr. Phillips; and the additions made to it by Mr. Alger, the American editor, are neither few in number, nor small in quantity. The fact is, Mr. Alger is not a mere "scissors and paste" book-maker, but a learned and laborious scholar, as will be readily inferred, even by those who are not acquainted with the fact, (as we are,) from a careful examination of the numerous and valuable additions which he has made to it, touching the mineralogical resources of our own country. The matter introduced by Mr. Alger exceeds three hundred pages. It comprises over one hundred additional figures in the introduction and the descriptive part; with the new species, foreign and American, brought into notice since the date of the last edition, and the addition of many foreign, as well as all the important American localities. The principal authorities consulted by Mr. A., in making the additions, have been the State reports by Professors Hitchcock, Beck, Emmons, Shepherd, Rogers, Drs. Troost, Jackson, and Haughton. The localities in Nova Scotia are from the personal observations of Mr. Alger and Dr. Jackson. It forms a beautifully printed volume, of nearly 700 octavo pages, in the best style of Boston typography.

2.—*Dictionary of Practical Medicine; comprising General Pathology, the Nature and Treatment of Diseases, Morbid Structures, &c.* By JAMES COPLAND, M. D., F. R. S. Edited, with Additions, by CHARLES A. LEE, M. D. 8vo. New York: Harper & Brothers.

Four numbers, (144 pages each,) of this new medical dictionary have already been published. It will be completed in about twenty numbers, and form four octavo volumes, of more than 600 pages each. We shall notice the work as it progresses; but, in the meantime, we cannot perhaps render a more acceptable service to the enterprising publishers and the public, than to annex the introductory notice of the American editor:—

"Regarding this work as decidedly the leading medical production of the age, both as regards the philosophy it inculcates, the vast accumulation of facts it presents, as well as the systematic order in which they are arranged, the editor will not feel himself justified in altering, in the slightest degree, the original text. He therefore pledges himself to preserve the different articles in their integrity, neither mutilating by omissions, nor qualifying by alterations and modifications. Indeed, so highly elaborated and finished are the different articles, that they form very complete monographs on the subjects of which they treat; and no one could expect, unless prompted by a high degree of arrogance and self-conceit, to be able to improve upon the labors of the accomplished author. But it is to be borne in mind, at the same time, that, as medicine is a rapidly progressive science, additions are constantly being made to our knowledge, in its various departments. Moreover, the medical literature of our country is but little known across the Atlantic, and the works of American physicians have heretofore not perhaps received that degree of attention abroad, to which they are justly entitled. These omissions and deficiencies, so far as they exist, it is the design of the publisher to have supplied; and it will, therefore, be the aim of the editor to keep this object especially in view. It is a fact also universally acknowledged, that, in consequence of the diversified range of our climate, and its extreme vicissitudes, we have diseases which are not only unknown to the milder and more uniform climate of Great Britain, as yellow fever, cholera infantum, etc., but many of our diseases assume a type and malignancy never witnessed in that country; and hence they require important modifications with regard to their treatment. These facts will not be lost sight of in editing the work; and in whatever additions may be made, practical utility will be constantly kept in view. Such additions will be included in brackets [ ]."

3.—*Researches on Scrofulous Diseases.* By J. G. A. LUGOL. Translated from the French. By A. SIDNEY DOANE, M. D. With an Appendix, comprising Formulæ for the Treatment of Scrofula. New York: J. S. Redfield.

We are highly gratified with Dr. Doane's labor, in presenting us this volume in our own Americana-Saxon tongue; and only wish that he had carried out his system, by giving us the quantities prescribed in the formulæ of his Appendix—not in the semi-barbaric contractions, but in plain words and figures. From a variety of observations, we have no doubt that mistakes of a very mischievous character and tendency are often made by the boys in drug stores, through an involuntary misapprehension of the old-fashioned and absurd medical hieroglyphics. A short time since, we were standing in a chemical shop, and a prescription was offered to one of the attendants of mature age, who refused to put up the mixture, on account of the indistinctness of the pencil-marks; but, turning round, he asked us if we recollected the quantities intended. We satisfied him on that point, and the medicine was sent; but, had the prescription been offered to one of the juniors, in his thoughtlessness, he would probably have put up the materia in deadly proportions. We advise all physicians to call things by their right names—grain, scruple, dram, one, four, seven, ten; and leave all cabalism with the impostors of the dark ages. However, Dr. Lugol's Researches are the result of long and extensive observation and medical practice, and are as rational as doubtless they are accurate; and, while we are indebted to Dr. Doane for his valuable work, we trust not only physicians but all other persons, will study his beneficial treatise on scrofula.

- 4.—*Life on the Ocean; or, Twenty-Five Years at Sea; being the Personal Adventures of the Author.* By GEORGE LITTLE, for many years Captain in the Merchant Service, out of the Port of Baltimore, but now entirely Blind. Boston: Waite, Pierce & Co.

This is an interesting volume, detailing the chequered and constantly changing events and circumstances of a sailor's life on the ocean, for the space of twenty-five years. The period of his wanderings was during a memorable epoch in the world's history. Europe was subjected to successive and continued revolutions. The nations of that continent were engaged in a deadly struggle for political existence; and while the two rival powers, France and England, were each putting forth its mightiest efforts to secure the controlling influence, our infant republic was reaping a rich and abundant harvest, in supplying the necessities of the belligerents—thus developing her boundless resources, and laying the foundation of her naval prowess, which shone so conspicuously in her subsequent conflict with Great Britain. In many of the exciting incidents growing out of these events, the author of this volume was an actor; and a participator, too, in the exposures and sufferings which war inevitably occasions. The full and apparently faithful view he has given of nautical life, will more than overbalance whatever errors in composition he has committed. His style, though homely, is graphic, and the volume is calculated to remove many erroneous and unfavorable impressions which prevail in relation to the character and habits of seamen.

- 5.—*A Treatise on the American Law of Landlord and Tenant, having reference to the Statutory Provisions and Decisions of the several United States, with a Selection of Precedents.* By JOHN N. TAYLOR, Counsellor at Law. New York: John S. Voorhies.

This, we believe, is the first American work of any importance on the law of landlord and tenant. The learned, but nearly obsolete works of Woodfall and Comyn, are considered almost useless in this country, from the fact of their failing to exhibit a correct view of the law as it exists, under the influence of our republican institutions, reformed by the commercial spirit of the age, and refined by the intelligence of our judiciary. The present work, Mr. Taylor informs us, is intended to supply a want of daily interest, not only to the profession, but also to the community. It is a plain, brief summary of the doctrines of the common law, including the later English cases, so far as they are applicable to the United States, with their statutory alterations and modifications, and the leading decisions in those states where the legal science has been most cultivated and improved. The work is highly recommended by some of our leading jurists, who are, of course, better able to estimate its value than the un-professional editor of this Magazine.

- 6.—*A History of the Society of Friends: Compiled from its Standard Records, and other Authentic Sources.* By WILLIAM R. WAGSTAFF, M. D. Part I. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

Although Friends, says the author of this volume, have many ably written records of the rise and progress of their society, yet they are, as is well known, in a great measure unadapted to general reading, either from their quaintness, or their verbosity of style. This, he adds, accounts for the acknowledged ignorance of the society as to its history, and especially the youth, who deem it a severe task, instead of a pleasure, to ponder over its pages, where they might with advantage reflect on the character and lives of those men, who, though they did not dazzle the eyes of mankind with any brilliant schemes of worldly ambition, ennobled themselves and the human family by raising and supporting the standard of Christianity within, as the bulwark of pure religion. Dr. W., during the hours of relaxation from his profession, has, with commendable zeal, collected and digested the materials necessary for such a work; and, in the volume before us, given them in a clear and comprehensive form. The present part is devoted to transactions on the other side of the Atlantic. A second part, containing a full account of the trials and privations of the society in the Western world, is soon to appear.

- 7.—*Human Magnetism: its Claims to Dispassionate Inquiry. Being an Attempt to show the Utility of its Application for the Relief of Human Suffering.* By W. NEWNHAM, Esq., M. R. S. L. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

So far as we are capable of judging, this volume appears to contain a rational defence of human magnetism, particularly in its application for the relief of physical suffering. The introduction is quite elaborate, and contains, besides, thirteen chapters, each devoted to a particular branch of the subject. The second chapter goes to show that magnetism is not a satanic agency, nor supernatural. The opposition of medical men, generally, to the doctrine of magnetism, is considered in one chapter, and its applicability to the relief of medical and surgical disease in another. We go for examining everything that prefers a claim upon human investigation; and would not, therefore, lightly reject a subject that has elicited the attention of so many wise and good men. "Prove all things—hold fast that which is good," is as applicable to magnetism, as to politics or religion.

- 8.—*The Recruit: a Compilation of Exercises and Movements of Infantry, Light Infantry, and Riflemen, according to the Latest Improvements.* By Captain JOHN T. CAIRNS. New York: E. Walker.

We never performed but one half day's "military duty, as the law directs," in our life; and we have no wish to do another. We have no taste, talent, or inclination for "arms;" and our judgment on the merits of a manual of this description is, therefore, not worth a straw. We are, moreover, opposed to the whole system of fighting, and consider it at once wicked and ridiculous—a conclusive evidence of that depravity which the founder of Christianity came to save men from. A "Christian" soldier, appears to us a perfect anomaly. To call such a one an infidel, would be far more charitable than to deal out the stigma upon the whole race of deists, from Hume down to Parker.

9.—*A Treatise upon the Diseases and Hygiene of the Organs of the Voice.* By COLOMBAT DE L'ISERE, M. D., etc., etc. Translated by J. F. W. LANE, M. D. Boston: Otis, Broaders & Co.

The favorable and unique situation which the author of this treatise occupied for many years, as founder and director of the Orthophonic Institution, at Paris, afforded him such means of observation upon this class of affections, as have fallen to the lot of no other person. He received from the Royal Academy of Sciences the prize of five thousand francs, for his works upon the mechanism of pronunciation, and his success in the treatment of errors of speech, and particularly that of stuttering. It describes the physiology and diseases of the organs of the voice, the medical treatment of the more common of these affections, and the conditions necessary to preserve their health. Such points as related strictly to surgical details, the translator has omitted, in order to render them more compact, and practically useful to the general reader.

10.—*The Farmers' and Emigrants' Hand-Book; being a Full and Complete Guide for the Farmer and the Emigrant; comprising the clearing of Forest and Prairie Land, Gardening, Farming, generally, Tannery, Cookery, and the Prevention and Cure of Diseases. With Copious Hints, Recipes, and Tables.* By JOSIAH T. MARSHALL, author of "The Emigrant's True Guide." New York: D. Appleton & Co. Philadelphia: George S. Appleton.

This volume, as will be seen by the title-page, quoted in full, embraces a wide range of subjects. It appears to be a luminous and ample directory and guide for the emigrant from the European countries and from the eastern states, about to remove and settle in the far west; and is well calculated, so far as we can judge, to enable them to meet the numberless trials and disadvantages that must inevitably fall in their way without the information furnished in the present volume. Indeed we, who have no idea of leaving our home in the east, find much in it to interest and instruct us in matters of which we were ignorant.

11.—*The Goldmaker's Village.* Translated from the German of H. ZSCHOKKE. New York: D. Appleton & Co. Philadelphia: George S. Appleton.

This forms another of the admirable series of books in course of publication, under the general title of "Tales for the People, and their Children." The publishers state, in a note appended, that this narrative of the "Goldmaker's Village" is the first of "a series of choice biographical and scenic works, designed for household instruction and improvement." It is written in the same spirit, and with equal truthfulness and veracity, as the narratives included in that popular volume, published some months since—"Incidents of Social Life amid the European Alps."

12.—*History of Europe, from the Commencement of the French Revolution, in 1789, to the Restoration of the Bourbons, in 1815.* By ARCHIBALD ALISON, F. R. S. E. Abridged from the last London edition. By EDWARD S. GOULD. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co.

This is the third edition of Mr. Gould's admirable abridgment of Alison. Our opinion of its character was expressed on its first appearance, in the pages of this Magazine. It is fast becoming a text-book in our colleges, academies, and other seminaries of learning, for which it is well adapted, by the addition of numerous questions, &c. The unequivocal recommendations which have been awarded to Mr. Gould's abridgment, by such men as Chancellor Kent, Judge Story, Dr. Matthews, late Chancellor of the University of New York, and other eminent authorities, renders anything that we might say in its favor a work of supererogation.

13.—*A Plain System of Elocution; or, Logical and Musical Reading and Declamation, with Exercises in Prose and Verse, etc.* By G. VANDENHOFF. New York: C. Shepherd.

This is the second edition of this work, considerably enlarged. It has before been noticed in this Magazine. The exercises are distinctly marked for the guidance of the ear and voice of the pupil; and there is moreover added an appendix, containing a copious practice in oratorical, poetical, and dramatic reading and recitation. It is designed not only for classes, and the use of schools, but for private pupils; and is highly recommended by teachers, and several leading Journals. It is not remarkably well printed, although in large and distinct type.

14.—*An Essay on the Philosophy of Medical Science.* By ELISHA BARTLETT, M. D., Professor of the Theory and Practice of Medicine in the University of Maryland. Philadelphia: Lea & Blanchard.

From the examination we have been able to bestow on this essay of the philosophy of medical science, we are satisfied that it is the production of an attentive student, who has drunk deeply of the philosophy of his profession from an ardent devotion to it. It differs widely from any treatise of the kind that has fallen under our observation, and has more originality than we usually meet with in professional works. It is, moreover, written in a clear and beautiful style, and may be read with profit and pleasure by all who wish to learn something valuable concerning the philosophy of a subject of so much importance to the race.

15.—*Harper's Family Library, No. 172. Voyages Round the World, from the Death of Captain Cook to the Present Time; including Remarks on the Social Condition of the Inhabitants of the Recently Discovered Countries, their Progress in the Arts, and more especially their Advancement in Religious Knowledge.* New York: Harper & Brothers.

The present volume, forming the 172d number of the Family Library, and a continuation of the 21st volume of the Edinburgh Cabinet Library, or the 82d number of the Family, furnishes the reader with a narrative of the various voyages round the world, prior to the death of the celebrated Captain Cook. It commences with Portloch and Dixon, and closes with the voyages of Mergen, Wilson, Belcher, and Ross. Although an outline history of the most interesting voyages of discovery, it presents a comprehensive view of the subjects embraced.

- 16.—Wright's "Practical Grammar of the English Language;" "Hours of Idleness Improved, or Tete-a-Tete Conversation on Language and Belles Lettres;" and "Philosophical Lectures on Language." New York: Barnard & Co.

An examination of these useful and interesting works on the structure of our language, induces us to unite in the numerous and highly respectable plaudits conferred on their merits, by the most distinguished linguists on both sides of the Atlantic. We have no hesitation in commending these works to all persons desirous of obtaining a critical and philosophical knowledge of the peculiarities of the English language.

- 17.—Horne on the Psalms. New York: Robert Carter.

A new, beautiful, and cheap edition of a well known standard work, that has been read and admired by the wise and good men of all religious sects. The chief peculiarity of the present edition is an elaborate and eloquent introduction, by the late Edward Irving, the celebrated minister of the Caledonian Church in London. It forms an octavo volume of nearly six hundred pages, and is afforded at \$1 50.

- 18.—Library of American Biography. Conducted by JARED SPARKS. Second Series. Vol. 5. Boston: Charles C. Little and James Brown.

The fifth volume of this admirable collection of biographical sketches of eminent Americans, embraces the lives of Count Rumford, Zebulan Montgomery Pike, and Samuel Gaston. The memoir of Benjamin Thompson, Count of Rumford, occupies more than one-half the volume, and was prepared by James Renwick, LL. D. It appears to be a concise, and at the same time comprehensive narrative, presenting all the most prominent events and circumstances in the life of that remarkable man.

- 19.—Domestic Slavery Considered as a Scriptural Institution, in a Correspondence between the Rev. Richard Fuller, of S. C., and Rev. Francis Wayland, of R. I. New York: Lewis Colby.

This little volume contains the correspondence on the subject of slavery which took place between Drs. Fuller and Wayland. It has been revised by the authors, and a preface by Dr. Wayland appears, which has the sanction of Dr. Fuller.

- 20.—The Governmental Instructor; or, A Brief and Comprehensive View of the Government of the United States, and of the State Governments, in Easy Lessons. By J. B. SHURTLEFF. New York: Collins, Brother & Co.

The title sufficiently explains the object of this little manual. It is designed for the use of schools, but the information it contains should be understood by every citizen in our republic. The volume is neatly printed, and the statements in regard to the rights, duties, etc., of the people, presented in a clear and concise form.

- 21.—Keeping House and Housekeeping. A Story of Domestic Life. Edited by Mrs. SARAH J. HALE. New York: Harper & Brothers.

A tale of domestic life, inculcating in the author's happiest vein those moral and social qualities which have ever been exemplified in her own experience of a well regulated and happy home. Mrs. Hale is not an elegant writer, but the various productions of her pen are marked for their good sense, and generally correct views.

- 22.—Alnwick Castle, with other Poems. By FITZ-GREENE HALLECK. New York: Harper & Brothers.

A new and beautiful edition of the poems of one of whom it is too late in the day for us to offer a single remark. The volume contains eighteen pieces. We only regret that Mr. Halleck has not written and published more; as everything he has written is a gem in our American literature.

- 23.—Isabel; or, The Trials of the Heart. A Tale for the Young. In Two Parts. New York: Harper & Brothers.

We have in this little volume a narrative of the daily life of one whose career was unmarked by romantic incidents or unusual adventures, and who pursued "the even tenor of her way" through those ordinary and seemingly insignificant trials, the endurance of which, nevertheless, often tests our faith and patience to the utmost. It is, however, an interesting and instructive book, that will afford amusement and instruction to the thousands similarly situated in life.

- 24.—The Private Purse, and other Tales. By Mrs. S. C. HALL. New York: C. S. Francis & Co.

An excellent volume, comprising one of the series of "Francis & Co.'s Little Library, for Young Persons of Different Ages." It may be read with profit and delight, not only by "young persons," but persons more advanced in life, occupying any of its social relations.

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